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THE CIVIL SERVICE
HISTORY OF ENGLAND:

BEING

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ARRANGED ESPECIALLY

FOR EXAMINATION CANDIDATES, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, AND

STUDENTS GENERALLY.

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EUM MITTEMUS, NISI PER LEGALE JUDICIUM PARIUM SUORUM
VEL PER LEGEM TERRÆ. NULLI VENDEMUS, NULLI NEGABIMUS
AUT DIFFEREMUS RECTUM AUT JUSTITIAM.'

MAGNA CHARTA, 1215

(*vide* p. 19, s. 55).

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PREFACE.

TO PREVENT any misconception which may arise from the presence of two names upon the title-page of the 'Civil Service History of England,' it is thought desirable to state distinctly that the work is now issued for the first time. Towards the close of 1869, the Author, Mr. F. A. White, a gentleman of long experience in tuition and the preparation of candidates for examination, submitted his MS. to the publisher, who considered that, with some modification and revision, it might advantageously be produced in the educational series commenced by the 'Civil Service Geography.' He therefore placed it in the hands of the present Editor, whom he knew to be conversant with the plan and details of that manual; and the 'Civil Service History of England' is offered to the public in the hope that it may prove in all respects worthy of its predecessor. With a few unimportant exceptions, the Author's scheme has been strictly preserved. It should, however, be stated that the textual alterations and additions throughout have been extensive, and that a considerable portion of the second part is wholly editorial.

H. A. D.

November 1870.

INTRODUCTION.

THE 'Civil Service History of England,' like the 'Civil Service Geography,' has been compiled chiefly to assist candidates in preparing to be examined for appointments under the Crown. This primary purpose has been steadily kept in view. It was no part of this purpose to provide the candidate with cut-and-dried answers to stereotyped questions, nor to pretend to enable him to reply successfully to every question that official ingenuity can devise. Any book making such professions would be open to the distrust of all earnest learners. On the contrary, the aim of the 'Civil Service History of England' is simply to present the leading facts of 'our rough island-story' in an order so simple, and so unincumbered by irrelevant matter, as to place the candidate in a position to acquire them rapidly and exactly, and to return precise and satisfactory replies to a fair proportion of any set of questions put to him in order to test his knowledge of the subject. For such as have ampler leisure or a wider ambition plenty of comprehensive manuals already exist; but even in employing these it may be found useful to consult a work in a smaller and more compact form, and those concerned in the production of this 'Fact-Book' are not without hope that it may be of use to the general student as well as to the candidate for whom it has been especially designed.

There are two considerations that may be supposed to affect the candidate for appointments in the Civil Service, which do not, as a rule, affect the general student. In the *first place*, the magnitude of the end to be attained, involving, *as it often does*, the gain or loss of provision for a lifetime, *stimulates even the most inconsiderate and indolent to an*

effort of industry ; in the second place, the short space generally available for preparation makes it imperative that no time should be lost or labour wasted. Both these considerations have been borne in mind in this compilation. Having regard to the former, no attempt has been made to disguise the extent of the work or the amount of application required to ensure success ; while, as respects the latter, every care has been taken to remove unnecessary obstacles, and to reduce the labour to a minimum by simplicity of arrangement, conciseness of expression, and facility of reference. It is with this last intention that a fuller General Index has been affixed to the book than is generally found in works of a similar kind.

For convenience' sake, the ' Civil Service History of England ' has been divided into Two Parts, either of which may be regarded as separate and independent. The first of these consists of a chronological summary of the successive events in English History, arranged in numbered and titled clauses, and grouped in eight chapters corresponding to the eight natural divisions of the subject. At the commencement of each chapter is its respective genealogical table, and wherever smaller tables are required to explain the text they are given in the shape of notes.

The paragraph system has been adopted in this part in order to aid the learner in detaching the information he requires from its surroundings and fixing it in his memory. One of the disadvantages of this method is a certain appearance of disconnection. On the other hand, it has at least the merit of keeping the text within narrow limits, as well as of reducing opportunities for digression ; and whenever the learner feels himself oppressed by the steady march of facts, he will find that the Schedules Abstract which concludes the volume will at once enable him to review his progress and test his acquisitions.

The Second Part is made up of eleven sections, to which, in default of a better, the name of Appendices has been given. But it is hoped that they will not be regarded, for this reason alone, as superfluous or undeserving of careful study. In some cases, as in the appendices on ' English Constitutional History ' and the ' History of India,' they repeat, in an expanded and

completer form, portions of the subject which are necessarily included in the first part. Here the object has been to allow the learner to study, in a coherent and consequent manner, facts which he would otherwise have to pick out laboriously from the general narrative. In other cases, as in the appendices entitled 'Inventions and Discoveries,' 'English Literature,' 'British Possessions,' &c., the information they embody is not contained in the first part, and is treated separately on account of its secondary importance.

Nothing more is needed to explain the Appendices. A glance at the Table of Contents will show their scope and purpose. It should, however, be stated that in compiling the appendix on the History of the Constitution some assistance has been derived from a useful Handbook on that subject by Mr. Alfred P. Hensman, Barrister-at-Law.

With the object of avoiding the inconveniences of folded plates, the maps, which have been prepared by the Editor, are respectively confined to a single page. They are, therefore, restricted in character, but will be found to contain most of the names which are mentioned in the body of the work.

In conclusion, it may appear even to the most ardent and enthusiastic of students that the dates in this book are superabundant. It is not for one moment proposed that they should be learned by rote. But all who have ever striven to acquire a knowledge of events in their proper order will not need the trite reminder that only dates can fix occurrences.

H. A. D.

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THE CIVIL SERVICE ENGLISH HISTORY.

PART FIRST.

CHAPTER I.

THE ROMAN PERIOD.

B.C. 55—A.D. 426.

1. **The Ancient Britons.**—Little is known respecting the aboriginal inhabitants of Britain. It is believed that they were descended from Celts, who had colonised the island from the continent. At the time of the Roman Invasion they were broken up into separate tribes, which were perpetually at war. The Britons of the north and middle districts were chiefly hunters and herdsmen. Those in the south were more advanced. They possessed the arts of mining and smelting, and traded with foreigners in tin, lead, &c.*

2. **Cæsar's Invasions, B.C. 55, 54.**—In the autumn of B.C. 55, after the conquest of Gaul, Julius Cæsar invaded Britain, upon the pretext, among others, that its inhabitants had aided his Gallic foes. He first made a descent on the coast of Kent, landing, it is generally believed, at Deal, was opposed, and, after obtaining promises of submission from the Britons, returned into Gaul. In the following spring, B.C. 54, finding these promises were disregarded, he made a second expedition, penetrated to St. Albans (*Verulamium*), which he burned, and finally concluded a peace.

* Cæsar ('*De Bello Gallico*'), Tacitus ('*Agricola*'), Camden's '*Britannia*,' the Anglo-Saxon Chronicles, and the works of Lappenberg, Palgrave, Sharon Turner, Kemble, Wright, Herbert, Guest, and others, may be consulted for the period of English History preceding the Norman Conquest. After this the sources of information are innumerable, and need not be particularised.

3. **Ostorius Scapula**, A.D. 47.—A long period elapsed before the Romans again visited Britain. An expedition under Aulus Plautius, sent over in 43 by the Emperor Claudius (who subsequently himself came to the aid of his general), was opposed by the Britons under Caractacus; and it was not until Ostorius Scapula overran the country as far north as the Tyne that Caractacus was made prisoner and sent to Rome. Even then the Roman general failed to subdue the inhabitants of South Wales (*Silures*), and he is said to have died of grief in consequence.

4. **Massacre of the Druids**, 61.—Suetonius Paulinus, the third successor of Scapula, reduced Anglesea (*Mona*) and suppressed the barbarous and cruel worship of the Druids, who had gradually taken refuge in that island, causing the priests and priestesses to be burned in the fires which they had prepared for their enemies. The Druids were the priesthood of Britain, and possessed immense influence over the people. They enjoyed immunity from war and taxes, were the sole educators of youth, and decided all disputes.

5. **Revolt of the Iceni**, 61.—In the absence of Suetonius, the Britons revolted under Boadicea (Queen of the Iceni, or inhabitants of Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridge), who, with her daughters, had suffered great indignities at the hands of the Roman Procurator, Catus. London was taken and burned by the insurgents, but they were ultimately defeated by the Romans with great slaughter, and the 'British Warrior Queen' poisoned herself to avoid falling into the hands of her conquerors.

6. **Agricola's Conquest**, 78-85.—Julius Agricola finally established the Roman Dominion. He extended it into Scotland (*Caledonia*) defeating the Scottish chief Galgacus at the foot of the Grampian Hills. His fleet sailed round Britain, which was now first discovered by the Romans to be an island.

7. **Hadrian's Wall**, 121.—Was erected to prevent the incursions of the Picts and Scots, who descended into the north of Britain from Scotland. It stretched from the Solway Frith to the German Ocean. In 211, the Emperor Severus repaired and strengthened it.

8. **Evacuation of Britain by the Romans**, 410.—This commenced in the reign of Honorius, who was wholly engrossed by the attacks of the Goths under Alaric. In 426, the Roman rule entirely ceased. Britain was thus left unprotected against the Picts and Scots, who assailed it from the north, while a new enemy had appeared in the south, in the persons of the Saxon pirates who infested the coasts of Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Kent, and Sussex.

9. **State of Britain under the Roman Dominion, B.C. 55—A.D. 410.**—When Cæsar invaded the country the inhabitants were rude and uncultivated, though certainly above the level of barbarians. In all probability the Romans furthered, if they did not actually initiate, the introduction of Christianity into Britain; and under their auspices great advances were made by the inhabitants in agriculture, commerce, and civilisation generally. They constructed many high walls and excellent roads, and built numerous towns, whose origin is still attested by their names, i.e.—Maldon, *Camalodunum*; Lincoln, *Lindum colonia*; &c. They protected the country from the Picts and Scots, and from the Saxon pirates, for which latter duty a special officer, styled the Count of the Saxon Shore (*Comes littoris Saxonici*), whose jurisdiction extended from Brancaster in Norfolk to Pevensey in Sussex, was appointed. They seem to have occupied the land as conquerors, and, mixing little with the natives, left few traces of their blood.

CHAPTER II.

THE SAXON AND DANISH PERIOD.*A.D.* 449-1066.

10. **The Saxon Invasion, 449.**—To protect themselves against the Picts and Scots, the Britons, who had grown unaccustomed to the use of arms during the Roman occupation, and who failed in their appeals to Rome for assistance, are said to have invoked the aid of their southern assailants, the Saxons, who afterwards turned against their allies, and, continually recruited by fresh immigrants, gradually established themselves in the country.

Although known by the general name of Saxons, the new invaders really consisted of (1) Jutes, from the present peninsula of Jutland; (2) Saxons, from the region between the Rhine and Elbe; and (3) Angles, from Schleswig-Holstein. The Saxons and Angles were by far the more numerous: from the latter comes the name England, first used in 688, but formally given to the country by Egbert in 829.

11. **The Heptarchy, 457-827.**—By the successive incursions of the Saxons, seven kingdoms were formed, as follow:—

Kingdom	Colonists	Chief town	Founder
1. Kantia , or Kent	JUTES	Canterbury	Hengist (457)
2. Sussex (South Saxons).	SAXONS	Chichester	Ella (490)
3. Wessex (West Saxons).		Winchester	Cerdic (519)
4. Essex (East Saxons).		London	Ercenwine (527)
5. Northumbria .	ANGLES	York	Ida (547)
6. East Anglia .		...	Uffa (571)
7. Mercia .		...	Crida (586)

878, a treaty was concluded, by which East Anglia, and parts of *Essex* and *Mercia* were ceded to them upon the condition that they embraced Christianity. The major part of the rest of Alfred's reign was passed in undisturbed peace.

Alfred revised the laws, rebuilt castles and towns, equipped a navy, and created a militia. He also established schools at Oxford, translated several Latin works into Anglo-Saxon, and otherwise encouraged learning and literature. When he died he was engaged upon a version of the Psalms. His life has been written by Asser, Bishop of Sherborne.

19. **EDWARD (The Elder)**, 901-925.—Second son of Alfred. First assumed the title of 'King of the English.'

20. **ÆTHELSTAN**, 925-940.—Eldest son of Edward the Elder. First caused the Bible to be translated into Anglo-Saxon.

21. **EDMUND I.**, 940-946. } Second and third sons of Edward
22. **EDRED**, 946-955. } the Elder.

23. **EDWY (The Fair)**, 955-958.—Eldest son of Edmund I. The reign of Edwy is chiefly occupied by his quarrel with Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury, and Odo, Archbishop of Canterbury; arising, mainly, from his marriage with Elgiva, a near relative. Elgiva was seized and treated with barbarous cruelty by Dunstan and his adherents.

24. **EDGAR**, 958-975.—Second son of Edmund I.

25. **EDWARD (The Martyr)**, 975-979.—Eldest son of Edgar, and murdered by his stepmother, Elfrida, to secure the succession for her son,

26. **ÆTHELRED II. (The Unready)**, 979-1016.—This monarch adopted the unworthy expedient of buying off the Danes, whose piratical attacks kept the country in constant alarm. For this purpose he levied an impost, styled Danegelt, on his subjects. In 1002 he ordered a massacre of all the Danes in England. Sweyn, King of Denmark, ravaged the country, to avenge this horrible act, and ultimately Ethelred fled into Normandy. He returned at the death of Sweyn, but died in 1016.

27. **EDMUND II. (Ironside)**, 1016.—Son of Ethelred II. After several battles, he shared the country with Sweyn's son, Canute, but reigned only seven months, and the whole country passed under the Danish rule.

28. **CANUTE**, 1016-1035.—Canute subdued Scandinavia, and thus became king of the four countries, England, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. He also compelled the kings of Cumbria and Scotland to do him homage.

29. **HAROLD I.** (or **Harefoot**), 1035-1040. } Sons of Canute.
30. **HARDICANUTE**, 1040-1042. }

31. **EDWARD (The Confessor)**, 1042-1066.—The crown now returned to the Saxon line in the person of this pious but weak and superstitious prince, who was the second son of Ethelred II. by his second wife, Emma. In his reign the Danegelt was abolished, and a compilation of the laws of Ethelbert, Alfred, and others was made, from which our present Common Law is said to be derived.

32. **The Witenagemot**.—The Saxon *Witenagemot*, or *Witan* ('Assembly of Wise Men'), consisted of the Bishops, Abbots, Earls, Aldermen, and the Thanes (= equites) of superior rank. It was convened at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide. It had, *inter alia*, the power of making laws, concluding treaties, levying taxes, raising land and sea forces, &c. It was an essentially aristocratic body, in which the people had no representatives.

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CHAPTER III.

THE HOUSE OF NORMANDY.

A.D. 1066-1154.

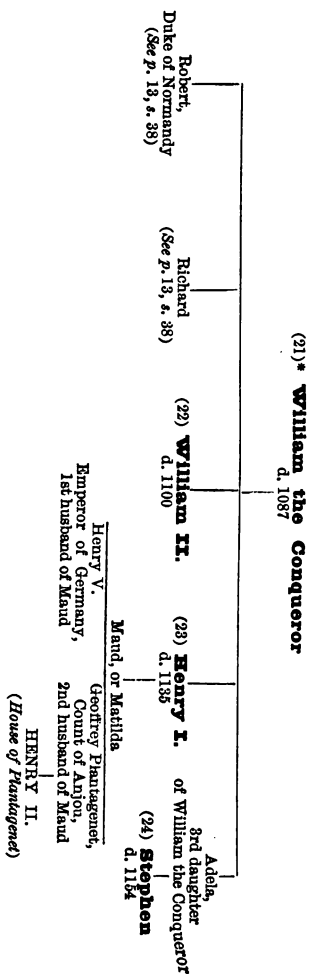
33. **The Norman Conquest**, 1066.—On the death of Edward the Confessor, the Witan elected Harold, eldest son of Godwin, Earl of Kent, to the crown, Edgar Atheling, the grandson of Edmund Ironside, being in reality the direct male heir. Immediately after his accession, Harold, whilst engaged in repelling Harold Hardrada, the King of Norway, and his own brother Tosti, who had invaded the country in the north, was summoned southwards to engage William, Duke of Normandy, who had landed his army at Pevensey, in Sussex, and claimed the crown. Harold had defeated the Norwegians at **Stamford Bridge**, where both Hardrada and Tosti were slain; but he was in his turn defeated by the Normans at **Hastings**, or Senlac, and killed by an arrow in the eye. The crown was subsequently offered to William.

34. **WILLIAM (The Conqueror)**, 1066-1087.—William was the son of Robert, Duke of Normandy; married **Matilda of Flanders** (1054). He was brave and politic, but cruel and oppressive to his English subjects. He introduced the unpopular curfew (*couvre-feu*), a bell at sound of which all fires were to be extinguished. He evicted numbers of poor people to make forests to hunt in (e.g. New Forest, Hampshire); and he laid waste all the country between the Humber and the Tees, a deed which he regretted on his death-bed. He based his pretensions to the crown chiefly upon his relationship to Edward the Confessor, whose cousin he was, and upon that monarch's alleged desire that William should succeed him.

35. **Hereward the Saxon**, 1069.—Shutting himself up in the Isle of Ely, this popular leader long defied William, but was finally betrayed by the monks of Ely.

36. **Domesday Book**, 1085.—The title of this record is *variously explained*. It was compiled by the king's order, and contained particulars respecting the different counties—their extent, division, products, &c. The original forms two volumes, a quarto

II. THE HOUSE OF NORMANDY.



* These numbers are continued from the table on p. 6.

and a folio, which are still preserved in the Record Office. Camden calls it the 'Tax-book of King William.'

37. Establishment of the Feudal System in England, 1086.—Under the feudal system, the supreme lord of the soil was called the Suzerain (sovereign); the vassals were those to whom he assigned parts of his land, upon their engaging to supply him with military aid during a stated period of every year, and to assist him with their counsel. The land held by the vassal was termed a Fief. There were several other obligations of vassalage, which it is not necessary to recapitulate here.

The Tenants-in-Chief, or superior vassals, in their turn, parcelled out their lands on the same terms to under-tenants. When the vassal was not bound to render homage to a superior lord, his tenure was termed allodial.

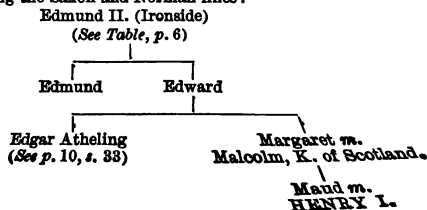
William greatly increased his power by requiring the oath of fealty from the under-tenants, as well as the tenants-in-chief. As a general rule of feudalism; the vassal had only taken the oath to the lord from whom he held.

38. WILLIAM II. (Rufus), 1087-1100.—Was the third son of William the Conqueror. Robert, the eldest, inherited the Dukedom of Normandy, which he subsequently mortgaged, in 1096, to his brother, in order to join in the Crusades with Stephen, Count of Blois, the husband of his sister Adela. The second son Richard had been slain in the New Forest by an accident.

The 'Bachelor King,' as he is sometimes styled, was able and energetic, but of a perfidious, violent, and tyrannical nature. He is commonly supposed to have been killed while hunting in the New Forest by a chance arrow from the bow of Sir Walter Tyrrel.

39. HENRY I. (Beauclerc), 1100-1135.—Was the youngest son of the Conqueror, and for his scholastic attainments styled Beauclerc. He, too, was able, but astute and cruel. To conciliate his Saxon subjects, he married (1) **Maud, niece of Edgar Atheling** (1100).* After her death he married (2) **Adelais of Louvain**

* Thus uniting the Saxon and Norman lines :—



(1121). His brother Robert, having returned from the Holy Land, laid claim to the throne, and invaded England in 1101; but he was ultimately induced to resign his pretensions for an annual pension. Henry, however, subsequently invaded Normandy, defeated Robert at the **Battle of Tinchebrai**, 1106, and confined him in Cardiff Castle until his death, in 1134, a period of twenty-eight years. William, Henry's only son, was drowned in returning from Normandy in 1120, and the crown was left to Matilda, his daughter, ex-Empress of Germany, and then married to Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou.* Henry granted his subjects a **Charter of Liberties**, which is regarded as one of the first concessions of the crown to the people. (*See* p. 19, s. 55.)

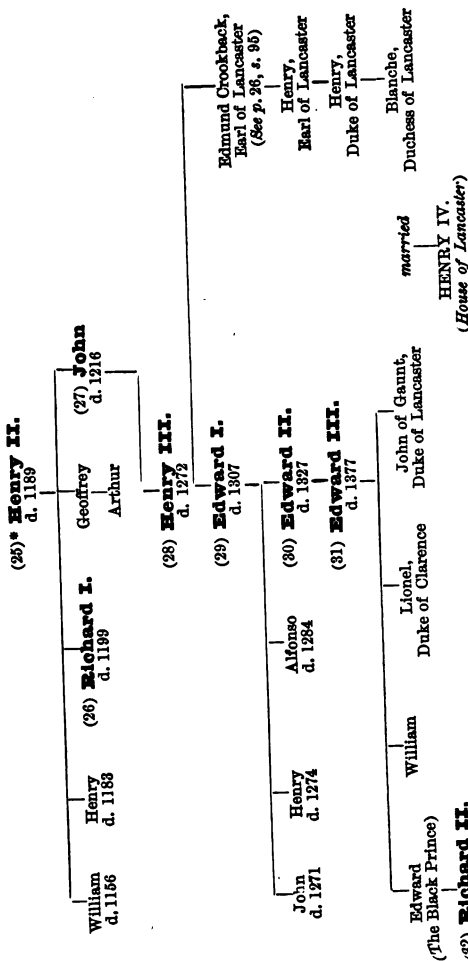
40. **STEPHEN (of Blois)**, 1135–1154.—Youngest son of Adela, third daughter of the Conqueror; married **Matilda of Boulogne** (1134). Upon Henry's death, he laid claim to the crown. He was warlike, but cruel. In his reign some 1200 castles were built in England.

41. **Battle of the Standard**, 1138.—David, King of Scotland, uncle of Matilda, took up arms in her cause and invaded England, penetrating into Yorkshire as far as Northallerton, but he was there met by Stephen and defeated at the Battle of the Standard, so called from a large wooden cross round which the English fought.

42. **Civil war with Matilda, commonly called the Empress Maud**, 1139.—Matilda landed with an army under the command of the Earl of Gloucester. In 1141, Stephen was taken prisoner at the **Battle of Lincoln**, and Matilda assumed the throne. But her rule was so unpopular that the barons again took up arms in the king's favour, made the Earl of Gloucester prisoner, and exchanged him for Stephen, who was finally permitted, under the **Treaty of Wallingford**, 1153, to retain the crown during the rest of his life, on condition that it should pass, at his death, to Henry Plantagenet, Matilda's son. Matilda has been called the first queen regnant, but, in point of fact, she never reigned, having never received coronation at the hands of the Church and nation.

* It will be seen that there were three Matildas, who must not be confused with one another. They were (1) Maud or Matilda, niece of Edgar Atheling, and first wife of Henry I.; (2) Maud or Matilda, commonly called 'the Empress Maud,' daughter of Henry I.; and (3) Matilda of Boulogne, wife of Stephen.

III.—THE HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET.



* These numbers are continued from the Table on p. 11.

CHAPTER IV.

THE HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET.

1154-1399.

43. **HENRY II.**, 1154-1189.—Son of the Empress Maud and Geoffrey, Count of Anjou. Henry was the first of the Plantagenet line, a name derived from the broom (*planta genista*), a sprig of which his father wore in his hat. In 1151, he had married **Eleanor of Guienne**, the divorced wife of Louis VII. of France, and so acquired Aquitaine. Romance has added greatly to the story of his affection for the beautiful Rosamund Clifford, commonly called 'Fair Rosamund,' by whom he had two sons.

44. **Constitutions of Clarendon**, 1164.—These were enacted at Clarendon, near Salisbury, with a view to check the encroachments of the clergy. The chief articles were: (1) That clergy accused of any crime should be tried by civil judges; (2) that no chief tenant of the crown should be excommunicated, or his lands put under interdict; (3) that bishops were to be regarded as barons, and be subjected to the burdens belonging to that state; and (4) that no person of any rank was to leave the realm without the royal license. The **Assize of Clarendon**, a series of regulations respecting civil affairs, was passed at the same time.

45. **Strongbow's Invasion of Ireland**, 1170.—Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke (Strongbow), having been invited to Ireland to assist Dermot, King of Leinster, who had been expelled from his kingdom for abducting the wife of another prince, invaded that island, obtained possession of Leinster, and married Eva, Dermot's daughter. After this, King Henry, jealous of Strongbow's progress, went over himself, in 1171, and received the submission of the Irish chiefs. Thus was Ireland annexed to the English crown.

46. **Murder of Thomas à Becket**, 1170.—Thomas à Becket, Archdeacon of Canterbury, having sedulously forwarded the projects of Henry, had, in consequence, become his chief adviser and had been raised to the important office of Chancellor. In 1162, the

king advanced him to the primacy in the hope that he would assist him in his ecclesiastical reforms. After the Constitutions of Clarendon, however, the archbishop strenuously opposed all Henry's measures. He ultimately retired into exile, but, being recalled, became more violent than ever; whereupon Reginald Fitz-Urse, Hugh de Morville, William de Tracy, and Richard Brito, four of the king's knights, instigated by some angry expressions he had let fall, pursued him to the shrine at Canterbury and there murdered him. Henry is said to have regretted this crime, and, in 1174, made a penitential pilgrimage to Becket's shrine.

47. Battle of Alnwick, 1175.—William the Lion, King of Scotland, entered Northumberland, at the head of an army, in the cause of Henry's sons, who, instigated by their mother, Eleanor, had rebelled. He was defeated and taken prisoner at Alnwick. By way of ransom he ceded the fortresses of Roxburgh and Berwick, and consented to do homage to Henry for the Lowlands of Scotland.

Roxburgh and Berwick were afterwards sold by Richard I. to raise funds for the Crusades.

48. Division of England into Circuits, 1176.—In this reign the kingdom was divided into six circuits for the administration of justice, and judges were appointed to visit each district for the purpose of trying cases.

49. Trial by Jury.—A form of Trial by Jury is supposed by some to have existed in Alfred's day. The difference between the alleged jury of Anglo-Saxon times and the modern form was, however, considerable. In Henry's reign an approach to the existing method took place. By the assize of novel disseisin, a suitor in civil causes who was unwilling to risk the trial by battle might refer his case to the verdict of a jury of sixteen. But this body based their decision upon their own knowledge of the facts of the case, and not on the evidence of witnesses. It was only in the reign of Edward III. that the witness and the jurymen became distinct persons, and even long after this period a personal knowledge of the facts of the case by the jurors was permitted.

50. RICHARD I. (Cœur de Lion), 1189–1199.—Third son of Henry II.; married **Merengaria of Navarre** in 1191. He was brave, warlike, and generous; nevertheless, his military enterprises and perpetual absences caused great general discontent and suffering. He was killed by one Bertrand de Gourdon at the siege of the Castle of Chaluz, which was held against him by a rebellious vassal.

51. The Crusades, 1096–1270.—The preaching of Peter the Hermit, a native of Picardy, who had witnessed the cruelty of the Saracens

towards the Pilgrims in the Holy Land, roused Europe to attempt to seize the Holy Sepulchre. In the first crusade (1096), undertaken for this end, Robert, Duke of Normandy, had embarked (*see* p. 13, s. 38), and Jerusalem had fallen into the hands of the Crusaders. In 1187 it was recaptured by the Saracens. Richard's warlike nature now engaged him in the enterprise in conjunction with Philip of France, who, however, returned after the **taking of Acre**, 1192. The forces under Richard then defeated the Saracens at the **Battle of Ascalon**, 1192, which town fell into their hands. But the army was too much wasted by sickness to attempt the siege of Jerusalem, and a truce of three years was entered into, by which it was agreed that the Christians should hold the seaport towns of Palestine, and that pilgrims to the Holy Land should not be molested.

52. **Imprisonment of Richard**, 1192.—On his return from the Holy Land, Richard was wrecked. Making his way in disguise through Germany, he was seized by Leopold, Duke of Austria, an old enemy, and delivered to Henry VI., Emperor of Germany. Ultimately he was ransomed by his subjects for 150,000 marks (13s. 4d. each), to the dismay of his younger brother John, who, during his detention, had attempted to seize the crown.

53. **JOHN (Lackland)**, 1199–1216.—Fifth son of Henry II. By his first wife, **Mawisa of Gloucester**, whom he married in 1189, he had no issue; his second was **Isabella of Angoulême**, daughter of the Count of Angoulême (1199). He was one of the most despicable of English kings, tyrannical, perfidious, and cowardly. He murdered the direct heir to the crown, his young nephew Arthur, the son of his elder brother Geoffrey, whose cause had been embraced by Philip of France, and by the people of Geoffrey's territories, Anjou, Touraine, and Maine. He is supposed to have died of chagrin for his reverses.

54. **England under an Interdict**, 1208–1213.—John having refused to receive Stephen Langton, the Papal nominee to the See of Canterbury, Innocent III. placed England under an interdict. While this lasted, no public service could take place in the churches, only persons at the point of death could be absolved, and the dead were left unburied. The pope, moreover, excommunicated the king, absolved his subjects from their allegiance, and authorised Philip of France to dethrone him. John finally submitted, consented to hold his kingdom as a fief of Rome, and received his crown from *Pandolf*, the papal nuncio.

55. **Magna Charta**, 1215.—The barons having assembled at

Runnymede, between Staines and Windsor, with Stephen Langton at their head, forced John to sign Magna Charta—a charter of liberties, based upon a charter of Henry I., which in its turn was based on the laws of Edward the Confessor. Its chief provisions were: (1) That no freeman should be disseised of his freehold, outlawed, or exiled, save by the lawful judgment of his peers or the law of the land; (2) that justice or right should neither be sold, delayed, nor denied to any man; (3) that all freemen might quit or return to the realm at pleasure; (4) that no freeman should be fined excessively; (5) that no peasant or villein should be deprived of his implements of husbandry; and (6) that, except in certain cases, no scutage or aid should be imposed without the consent of the council. It is needless to observe that John had no intention of allowing himself to be bound by the Charter he had signed.

56. HENRY III., 1216–1272.—Eldest son of John; married Eleanor of Provence in 1236. This was one of the longest and most inglorious reigns in English history. The king was weak and vacillating, and the puppet of powerful barons.

57. Battle of Lincoln, 1217.—King John having broken faith with the barons and violated Magna Charta, not only by retaining the foreign mercenaries whom he had agreed to dismiss, but also by seeking the aid of others, they had offered the kingdom to Louis, son of Philip, King of France, who accordingly came over to England. At John's death, however, they all forsook Louis, and he was defeated at Lincoln by the Earl of Pembroke, who had been chosen Protector of the kingdom during the minority of Henry, then only nine years of age. At the same time, Louis's fleet was nearly destroyed off Kent by Hubert de Burgh. This was the first great naval victory over the French.

58. Rebellion of Simon de Montfort, 1264.—The king's brother-in-law, Simon de Montfort (who had been created Earl of Leicester), and several powerful barons, took advantage of the weakness of Henry to rebel against him. They defeated Henry at the

59. Battle of Lewes, 1264, taking him prisoner, together with his brother, the Duke of Cornwall, and his son Edward.

60. First House of Commons, 1265.—Simon de Montfort, in order to ingratiate himself with the people, summoned burgesses for the first time to sit in the great council of the nation. The writ addressed by him to the cities and boroughs directed them 'to choose and send two discreet, loyal, and honest men' to represent them in Parliament.

61. **Battle of Evesham, 1265.**—Prince Edward having escaped from captivity, and being joined by several powerful barons, who had deserted Simon de Montfort, defeated him at the Battle of Evesham, where he was killed. After the battle, the cause of the people being for the time depressed, and Magna Charta trampled under foot, there was much discontent and disorder throughout the kingdom.

62. **EDWARD I. (Longshanks), 1272–1307.**—Eldest son of Henry III.; married **Eleanor of Castile** in 1254. He was one of the greatest of English kings, and, on account of his wise legislative enactments, was surnamed 'The English Justinian.' During the latter years of his father's life, Edward had fought in the last of the Crusades, where he was wounded by the poisoned dagger of an assassin. His wife Eleanor, so the story goes, saved him by sucking the venom from the wound. The memory of this occurrence has recently been revived by the erection of a second commemorative monument at Charing Cross, upon the exact spot where Edward raised the first one in honour of his '*chère Reyne*,' from which epithet the name of the locality is supposed to be derived.

In this reign the House of Commons was finally established. Henceforth the power of Parliament grew steadily, until, from having at first little more than the right to petition, it became virtually the greatest power in the realm.

63. **Benefit of Clergy, 1274.**—Ecclesiastics were exempted from the jurisdiction of secular courts. In Edward's time, to mitigate the severity of the laws by which lay culprits suffered death for the most petty offences, the *privilegium clericale* was extended to all who could read a verse or two of a Latin book, and offenders who stood this test were only burned in the hand. Henry VII., Henry VIII., and Anne successively restricted this privilege. It was finally abolished in the reign of George IV.

64. **Statute of Gloucester, 1278.**—Under this enactment inquiries were made into the encroachments of the nobility on the royal demesnes. They gave great dissatisfaction to the nobility, and were not proceeded with.

65. **Statute of Mortmain, 1279.**—By this no land or tene-ments could be transferred to the clergy (i.e. *in mortuâ manu*—the members of ecclesiastical bodies being reckoned dead in law) without the license of the king.

66. **Statute of Acton Burnel, 1283.**—So called from the place where it was passed. It provided for the more speedy recovery of debts due to traders.

67. **Conquest of Wales, 1283.**—After a struggle of 800 years, the Welsh princes at length succumbed to the power of the English monarch. Upon the defeat of Llewellyn, their last ruler, at the **Battle of the Wye**, Wales was erected into a principality for the heir of the English crown. By the **Statute of Wales, 1284**, it was incorporated with England, and Edward II., who was born at Carnarvon, received the title of Prince of Wales, which the eldest sons of the Kings of England have borne ever since.

68. **Statute 'Quia Emptores,' 1290.**—By this freemen could sell all their lands, provided the purchaser would hold them of the superior tenant, as they had been held by the vendors.

69. **The Scotch Succession, 1292.**—Margaret, the Maid of Norway, heiress to the Scottish crown, having died, the two chief competitors, Robert Bruce and John Baliol, referred the settlement of their claims to Edward's decision. The decision being in favour of the latter, Baliol proceeded to do him homage as a vassal.

70. **Battle of Dunbar, 1296.**—Baliol having revolted, Edward's forces entered Scotland and defeated and deposed him at Dunbar, carrying the famous coronation stone of the Scottish kings to England.

71. **Battle of Cambuskenneth, 1297.**—The Scotch, headed by Sir William Wallace, declared in favour of Robert Bruce, defeated Edward's forces near Stirling, and devastated the north of England.

72. **Statute 'De Tallagio non concedendo,' 1297.**—The barons obliged Edward to sign a **Confirmation of the Charters** (i.e. Magna Charta and the Charter of the Forests) with an additional clause, known by this title. It put an end to the imposition of taxes by the crown without consent of Parliament. From this time the right of raising supplies was vested in the people.

73. **Battle of Falkirk, 1298.**—This was a severe defeat by Edward of the Scotch under Sir W. Wallace.

74. **Execution of Wallace, 1305.**—Wallace, after making a bold stand in the Highlands of Scotland, was ultimately betrayed by his friend, Sir John Monteith, carried to London, and executed as a rebel and traitor.

75. **EDWARD II., 1307–1327.**—Fourth son of Edward I.; married **Isabel of France** in 1308. A weak monarch, governed by despicable favourites.

76. **Battle of Bannockburn, 1314.**—Instead of carrying on the war in Scotland, Edward, at his father's death, made a truce with Scotland. Seven years afterwards, he invaded that country, but

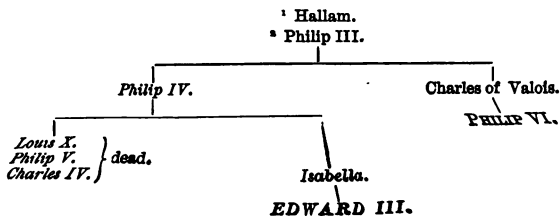
received, at Bannockburn, the severest defeat England has ever sustained.

77. **Deposition of Edward II.**, 1327.—Though he defeated the Earl of Lancaster at the **Battle of Boroughbridge** (1322), and even put him to death, this unfortunate prince was unable in the end to make head against his rebellious barons. They seized and hanged his favourites, and afterwards, by the aid of his Queen Isabella and her favourite, Roger Mortimer, took Edward himself prisoner at Kenilworth Castle. He was then removed to Berkeley Castle and barbarously murdered.

78. **EDWARD III. (of Windsor)**, 1327–1377.—Eldest son of Edward II.; married **Philippa of Hainault** in 1328. In this reign the armies of both France and Scotland were signally defeated, and their kings made prisoners. King Edward was a wise and valorous sovereign. He encouraged commerce, favoured the settlement in England of Flemish handicraftsmen, and built the Castle of Windsor. But perhaps the most notable fact of this period is the success which crowned 'the efforts of Parliament in behalf of their country in establishing upon a firm footing three essential principles of our government: (1) the illegality of raising money without consent; (2) the necessity that the two Houses should concur for any alterations in the law; (3) and lastly, the right of the Commons to inquire into public abuses, and to impeach public councillors.'¹

79. **Battle of Halidon Hill**, 1333.—The Scotch, under the Earl of Douglas, Regent during the minority of David Bruce, made an inroad upon the North of England. In revenge, Edward marched into Scotland, and gained a victory at Halidon Hill, which in a measure compensated for the defeat at Bannockburn.

80. **Battle of Sluys**, 1340.—Upon the death of Charles IV., King of France, Edward claimed the crown of that kingdom in right of his mother, Isabella, Charles's sister. The claim was untenable (1) because a nearer male heir existed in the person of Philip of Valois, and (2) because the Salic law excluded females from the succession.² In the year 1337, however, Edward adopted



the title of King of France, quartered the French lilies with the English lions (where they remained till the Peace of Amiens, 1802), and commenced war with Philip by a great victory over his fleet at Sluys.

81. **The Invention of Gunpowder**, 1320, by one Schwartz, took place in this reign. It was first used at the Battle of Cressy.

82. **Battle of Cressy**, 1346.—This was a famous victory gained over Philip of France, and chiefly owing to the skill and valour of Edward's eldest son, afterwards called 'The Black Prince,' from the armour worn by him on this occasion. The English forces of 30,000 men were opposed to 130,000 French.

83. **Battle of Neville's Cross**, 1346.—During Edward's absence in France, David Bruce, King of Scotland, invaded England, but was met, defeated, and taken prisoner at Neville's Cross, by an army raised by Queen Philippa.

84. **Siege of Calais**, 1347.—Calais, held for eleven months against Edward by John de Vienne, surrendered. Edward, according to Froissart, accepted the terms of the besieged on condition that six of the most considerable burgesses should present themselves for execution. Their lives were spared at Queen Philippa's entreaties.

85. **Institution of the Order of the Garter**, 1349.—The popular story of this is well known, but the real origin of the Order is obscure. Edward the Black Prince was the first Knight of the Garter.

86. **Statute of Provisors**, 1353.—Under this, presentation by the Pope to vacant benefices in England was prohibited.

87. **Battle of Poitiers**, 1356.—Another great victory gained by the Black Prince over John, King of France, whom he took prisoner.

88. **Treaty of Bretigny**, 1360.—Between England and France. Edward resigned his claim to the crown of France, renounced his pretensions to certain French provinces, and received others in exchange. His prisoner, King John, was to pay a ransom. The ransom could not however be raised, and John died in England.

89. **Death of Edward the Black Prince**, 1376.—Having gone to Spain to assist Pedro the Cruel, King of Castile, in his wars, the Black Prince was greatly instrumental in defeating Du Guesclin at Najara, in 1367. The expenses of this expedition obliged him to heavily tax his French subjects (the people of Aquitaine). The inhabitants of Limoges in consequence revolted, and on recapturing the town he had them all put to death. His health had been long breaking up, and not long after this cruel act he died.

90. **RICHARD II. (of Bordeaux)**, 1377-1399.—Son of Edward the Black Prince, and grandson of Edward III.; married (1) **Anne of Bohemia** in 1382; (2) **Isabella of France** in 1396. The extremes of weakness and impetuosity met in this prince. His first queen, however, induced him by her influence to lend some aid to the growing spirit of resistance to the encroachments of the Papacy.

91. **Wat Tyler's Insurrection**, 1381.—This was the first marked insurrection of the lower orders since the Conquest, and showed that they were escaping from the serfdom to which they had been so long subjected. It was occasioned by a poll-tax levied upon all persons above fifteen years of age, and was headed by Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others. After committing great outrages in various parts of the country, the rioters came to London, where the king met them at Smithfield. Wat Tyler assuming a menacing attitude, was killed by William Walworth, the Mayor of London. The king made pretence of granting their demands, but revoked his promises afterwards, and the poor were treated worse than before.

92. **Battle of Otterburn (Chevy Chase)**, 1388.—The Scotch continued to make inroads into the north of England. In one of these the Scottish leader, Douglas, defeated the Percies, and took young Percy, surnamed Hotspur, prisoner.

93. **Statute of Præmunire**, 1392.—Another Statute against Provisors (*see* p. 24, s. 86), passed to check the Papal power in England. It enacted 'that whoever procures at Rome, or elsewhere, any translations, processes, excommunications, bulls, instruments, or other things, which touch the king, against him, his crown and realm, and all persons aiding and assisting therein, shall be put out of the king's protection, their lands and goods forfeited to the king's use, and they shall be attached by their bodies to answer to the king and his council.' In Henry VIII.'s time the penalties of præmunire were further extended.

94. **Rebellion of the Earl of Hereford**, 1398.—Henry, Earl of Hereford, called Bolingbroke, son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, by his first wife, Blanche of Lancaster, having challenged the Duke of Norfolk to a duel, was, with his opponent, banished by the king. On John of Gaunt's death, Richard seized the estates. Bolingbroke accordingly landed in England, and being joined by the Percies and other powerful barons, dethroned Richard, who was confined in Pontefract Castle, where he died. Some say that he was murdered, others that he escaped to Scotland.

CHAPTER V.

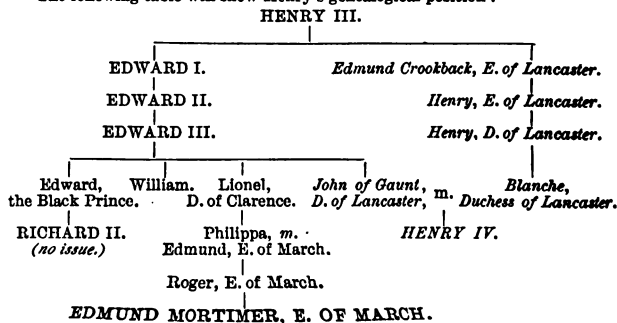
THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK.

1399-1485.

95. **HENRY IV.**, 1399-1413.—John of Gaunt, fourth son of Edward III., was Henry's father. He married (1) **Mary of Bohun** in 1387, and (2) **Jane of Navarre** in 1403. The grounds of his pretensions to the throne were (1) deposition of the late king; (2) election of the people; (3) Act of Parliament, and (4) descent from Edmund Crookback, Earl of Lancaster, alleged by some to have been the *elder* brother of Edward I. The real heir to the throne was Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March (1392-1424), then seven or eight years old.¹ External tranquillity was maintained during this reign; but his doubtful title to the crown drove the king into vigorous measures abroad to preserve tranquillity at home.

96. **Persecution of the Lollards or Wickliffites**, 1401.—This was a name given to the followers of Wickliffe, who had been gradually gaining ground in the last two reigns. His desire to conciliate the clergy induced Henry to support the cruel statute **De Hæretico Comburendo**, chiefly directed against this sect, by which burning alive was made the punishment of heresy. William

¹ The following table will show Henry's genealogical position :—



IV.—THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK.

EDWARD III.
(House of Plantagenet.)

Edward (The Black Prince)	William	Lionel, Duke of Clarence	John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster	Edmund, Duke of York
RICHARD II. (House of Plantagenet)	Philippe m. Edmund, Earl of March	Roger. Earl of March	(33) * HENRY IV. d. 1413	Richard, Earl of Cambridge m. Anne Mortimer
Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March (See p. 26, s. 95)	Anne Mortimer m. Richard, Earl of Cambridge	Richard, Duke of York (See pp. 30, 31, ss. 107, 111) 'White Rose'	(34) HENRY V. d. 1422	
			(35) HENRY VI. dep. 1461, d. 1471 'Red Rose'	
			Edward d. 1471 (See p. 31, s. 119)	
(36) Edward IV. d. 1483	George, Duke of Clarence (See p. 32, s. 121)			(38) Richard III. d. 1485
(37) Edward V. Murdered in the Tower, 1483	Richard Duke of York	Elizabeth of York (See p. 38, s. 125)		

* These numbers are continued from the table on p. 16.

Sawtre, Rector of St. Osith, was the first victim. The persecution was continued in Henry V.'s reign, when Sir John Cobham suffered death, with many others.

97. **Battle of Homildon Hill**, 1402.—Between the Percies and the Scotch under Earl Douglas. Earl Douglas and many of the Scotch nobility were taken prisoners.

98. **Battle of Shrewsbury**, 1403.—In this battle, Henry, Prince of Wales, afterwards Henry V., greatly distinguished himself. It was fought between the king's troops on the one side and Owen Glendower, a Welsh gentleman, and the Percies on the other; the Percies having rebelled because the king had forbidden them to ransom Earl Douglas, their prisoner. The rebels were defeated, and Hotspur (Harry Percy) was killed.

99. **HENRY V. (of Monmouth)**, 1413–1422.—Eldest son of Henry IV.; married in 1420 **Catherine of France**, who after his death became the wife of Owen Tudor. He is reported to have been wild and licentious in his youth; but his riper years atoned fully for errors which have been perhaps too highly coloured. His bravery and military skill have made his memory popular. These qualities, and the civil wars in France, led him to revive Edward III.'s claim to the crown of that kingdom.

100. **Siege of Harfleur**, 1415.—He accordingly invaded France, and took the town of Harfleur.

101. **Battle of Agincourt**, 1415.—After the taking of Harfleur, his army being wasted by disease, Henry commenced retreating to England, but was forced into a battle with the French at Agincourt. The result was a decisive victory over the enemy; 14,000 prisoners were taken, and 10,000 men were killed. The English loss was about 1600, but has, in all probability, been greatly understated. Shakspeare, who has followed the common report, makes it ludicrously small:—

Edward, the Duke of York, the Earl of Suffolk,
Sir Richard Ketly, Davy Gam, Esquire:
None else of name; and, of all other men,
But *five-and-twenty*.

Henry V.

102. **Treaty of Troyes**, 1420.—Peace was finally concluded between England and France upon these conditions: (1) That Henry should marry Catherine, daughter of Charles VI., the imbecile *King of France*; (2) that he should succeed to the crown at that monarch's death, to the exclusion of the dauphin; and (3) be regent of the kingdom during the remainder of his lifetime.

103. **HENRY VI. (of Windsor)**, 1422-1461.—Only son of Henry V.; married in 1445 to **Margaret of Anjou**, daughter of Regnier, or René, Duke of Anjou and King of Naples, a princess of commanding qualities. On the death of his father Henry was an infant, and England and France were placed under the regencies of his uncles, the Dukes of Gloucester and Bedford. Early in life, the young king displayed a weakness of character, which towards the latter portion of his reign changed to absolute mental incapacity, inherited doubtless from his grandfather, Charles VI., the mad King of France.

104. **Battle of Verneuil**, 1424.—Charles VI. died in 1422. At his death, in defiance of the Treaty of Troyes, the dauphin seized the crown. He was defeated by the Earl of Salisbury, at **Cravant**, in 1423, and afterwards by Bedford, at the bloody battle of Verneuil. Then the tide was turned by

105. **Joan of Arc, Maid of Orleans**, 1429-1431.—A female theomaniac, who relieved Orleans, when closely besieged by the English led by the Duke of Suffolk. Under her influence, politically turned to good account by the dauphin, who was crowned at Rheims as Charles VII., in 1429, the French retrieved their losses. She was subsequently taken prisoner, and cruelly burnt in the market-place at Rouen in 1431, as a sorceress and heretic. From this date, nevertheless, the English were gradually driven from their strongholds, and, in a few years, they lost, with the exception of Calais, all their possessions in France, which nothing indeed but its own intestine divisions could ever have made them masters of.

106. **Jack Cade's Insurrection**, 1450.—Jack Cade, an Irish adventurer, assumed the popular name of Mortimer, and raised a rebellion in Kent. The insurgents defeated Sir Humphrey Stafford, who was despatched against them, and afterwards advanced to London. They were, however, finally dispersed; and Cade was killed by a gentleman of Sussex, named Iden.

107. **Wars of the Roses**, 1455-1485. — Originated in the struggle between Margaret of Anjou and Richard, Duke of York, to gain possession of the person of Henry VI. The duke claimed to be the rightful heir to the throne, through his mother, Anne Mortimer, descended from Lionel, Duke of Clarence, third son of Edward III. The Lancastrian badge was a *red*, the Yorkist a *white* rose.

108. **First Battle of St. Albans**, 1455.—First battle in the *Wars of the Roses*; won by the Yorkists. The Duke of Somerset (*Lancastrian*) was killed, and the king taken prisoner.

109. **Battle of Blore Heath**, 1459.—After a short interval of

quiet, war broke out again between the rival factions. The Yorkists were again victorious at Blore Heath.

110. **Battle of Northampton, 1460** (July 10).—The royal forces were defeated by the Earl of Warwick, the chief of the Duke of York's partisans; the king was again taken prisoner, and Margaret fled into Scotland.

111. **Battle of Wakefield, 1460** (December 30).—The queen beat the Duke of York, who was killed. His head, crowned with a paper crown, was set up over York Gate by Margaret's orders, and his son, the young Earl of Rutland, was murdered by Lord Clifford.

112. **Battle of Mortimer's Cross, 1461** (February 2).—A new actor now appeared upon the scene, in the person of Edward (afterwards Edward IV.), York's eldest son. He defeated the queen's forces at Mortimer's Cross, and was shortly afterwards proclaimed king. With him begins the House of York.

113. **Second Battle of St. Albans, 1461** (February 19).—The queen here defeated the Earl of Warwick; but the victory gave her little or no advantage.

114. **EDWARD IV. (of York), 1461–1483.**—Married in 1463 to **Elizabeth Woodville**, daughter of Richard Woodville, Lord Rivers. He was handsome, brave, and popular, but sensuous and cruel.

115. **Battle of Towton, 1461.**—The queen, still struggling, was defeated by Edward, at Towton; subsequently by Edward's forces at the

116. **Battle of Hedgely Moor, 1464** (April 25), and finally at the

117. **Battle of Hexham, 1464** (May 15). She then fled, and escaped to Flanders; the king fell into Edward's hands.

118. **Battle of Barnet, 1471** (April 14).—Edward's marriage to Elizabeth Woodville had alienated the Earl of Warwick from his cause. That nobleman, whose part in the civil wars had gained him the title of the 'Kingmaker,' now entered into an alliance with the fugitive queen, and obliged Edward to take flight. The king, however, speedily returned, and defeated Warwick at Barnet, where he, and his brother the Marquis of Montacute, who had deserted from Edward's cause, were both slain.

119. **Battle of Tewkesbury, 1471** (May 4).—The last effort of the queen, who was here defeated by Edward IV. Her son, *Prince Edward, was murdered after the battle by the Dukes of Clarence and Gloucester, and others.* Margaret was thrown into the Tower

and Henry VI., who was already confined there, died a few days afterwards. Rumour alleges that he also was killed by the Duke of Gloucester.

120. **Treaty of Pecquigny, 1475.**—Between France and England, and arose from Edward's invasion of the former country. By this treaty, Queen Margaret was released from confinement, and ransomed by Louis XI. of France, to whom her father surrendered his county of Anjou for this purpose. Louis engaged to pay Edward an annual pension to withdraw his army, and the dauphin was to marry Edward's eldest daughter, Elizabeth of York. (*See* p. 35, s. 125).

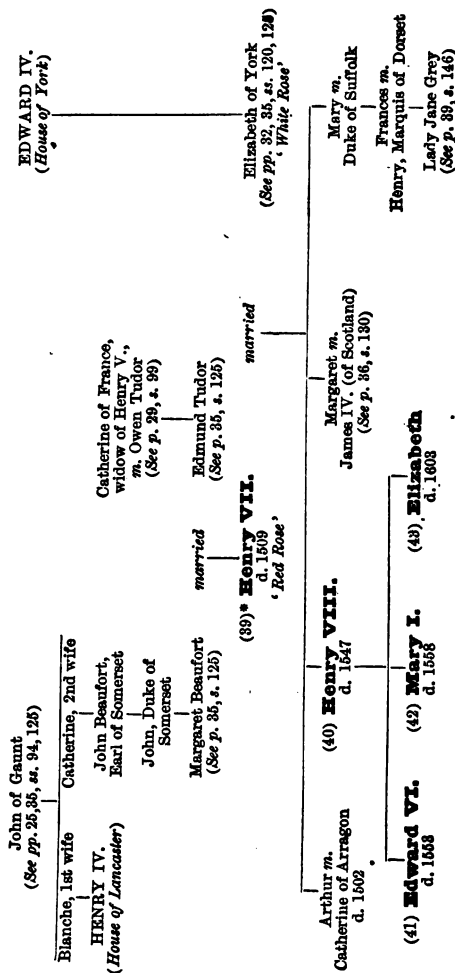
121. **Death of the Duke of Clarence, 1478.**—The Duke of Clarence, who at first sided with his father-in-law, the Earl of Warwick, in the aforementioned rupture between that nobleman and the king, subsequently deserted to Edward, whose favour he never thoroughly regained. Towards the close of the reign he was accused of treason, and condemned. He was afterwards found dead in the Tower. Vulgar tradition declares him to have been drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine.

122. **EDWARD V., 1483.**—Son of Edward IV. He was soon dethroned, and finally murdered in the Tower, with his brother Richard, Duke of York, by the Duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard III., who had been appointed Protector. Horace Walpole's *Historic Doubts* have for object the clearing of Gloucester's character. The bones of the young princes were, however, found in the Tower in 1674; and there is every reason for believing that the murder was perpetrated by the Protector's orders.

123. **RICHARD III., 1483–1485.**—Uncle of Edward V.; married in 1472 to **Anne Neville**, widow of Henry VI.'s son, Prince Edward, and daughter of the Earl of Warwick. He was an able and valorous prince, but allowed no atrocity to stand in the way of his ambitious designs. He first sent consuls abroad, and abolished the taxes called 'Benevolences,' which had become a serious evil under Edward IV.

124. **Battle of Bosworth Field, 1485.**—Between Richard III. and Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond. This was the final battle in the Wars of the Roses. (*See* p. 30, s. 108.) The king, deserted by all his forces, was here slain, fighting desperately to the end. He was the last of the Plantagenet race, and Richmond, picking up his crown on the battle field, installed a new dynasty, with the title of **Henry VII.**

V.—THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.



* These numbers are continued from the table on p. 27.

CHAPTER VI.

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

1485-1603.

125. **HENRY VII.**, 1485-1509.—The old nobility having been almost annihilated, either on the battle-field or the scaffold, during the Wars of the Roses, Henry VII. was enabled to reign without opposition. He was the son of Margaret Beaufort (great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, by his second wife, Catherine Swineford) and Edmund Tudor (son of Owen Tudor and Henry V.'s widow, Catherine of France). (See p. 29, s. 99.) To strengthen his position, he married, in 1486, **Elizabeth of York**, eldest daughter of Edward IV., thus uniting the rival Houses of York and Lancaster. Her right to the throne was greater than his, by reason of her descent from Lionel, Duke of Clarence, third son of Edward III.; but as he had been made king by Act of Parliament, and had conquered the crown from an usurper, he was in reality the sole ruler.

His master passion was avarice. To gratify this, the Star Chamber of Edward III., with its fines and tyrannical jurisdiction, was revived, to commence the course of oppression which culminated under Charles I. (see p. 46, s. 169); the arbitrary 'Benevolences,' abolished by Richard III., were re-established, and many other vexatious imposts were levied. His dislike to war, however, was the cause of peace; hence his rule was highly beneficial to the country, exhausted as it was by thirty years of contention. Commerce was greatly promoted in this reign, and Sebastian Cabot discovered Newfoundland. The Tudor architecture, a very beautiful and ornate style, as illustrated by King's College Chapel, Cambridge, and Henry VII.'s chapel at Westminster, was also first introduced.

126. **The Insurrection of Lambert Simnel**, 1487.—Lambert Simnel was an impostor of low extraction, who was employed to impersonate the son of the Duke of Clarence, Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, who had been thrown into the Tower by Henry, after the Battle of Bosworth. Many persons of eminence supported Simnel's pretensions to the crown. They were finally defeated at the Battle

V. THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

Isabel of Castile
(See pp. 22, 24, 25, 125)

Catherine of Aragon
(See p. 24, 25, 125)

John Viscount
Earl of Richmond

John, Duke of
Burgundy

Margaret Beaufort
(See p. 24, 25, 125)

(30)* **HENRY VII.**
d. 1509
"Red Rose"

(40) **HENRY VIII.**
d. 1547

Arthur m.
Catherine of Aragon
d. 1502

(42) **MARY I.**
d. 1558

Edward VI.
d. 1553

Catherine of France,
widow of Henry V.,
m. Owen Tudor
(See p. 24, 25, 125)

Edmund Tudor
(See p. 24, 25, 125)

married

Margaret m.
James IV. (of Scotland)
(See p. 24, 25, 125)

(43) **ELIZABETH**
d. 1603

EDWARD IV.
(House of York)

Elizabeth of York
(See pp. 22, 24, 25, 125, 126)
"White Rose"

Mary m.
Duke of Suffolk

Frances m.
Henry, Marquis of Dorset
Lady Jane Grey
(See p. 24, 25, 126)

* These numbers are continued from the table on p. 97.

CHAPTER VI.

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

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His master passion was avarice. To gratify this, the Star Chamber of Edward III., with its fines and tyrannical jurisdiction, was revived to commence the course of oppression which culminated under Charles I. (see p. 46, s. 169); the arbitrary 'Benevolences' abolished by Richard III., were re-established, and many other vexatious imposts were levied. His dislike to war, however, was the cause of peace; hence his rule was highly beneficial to the country, exhausted as it was by thirty years of contention. Commerce was greatly promoted in this reign, and Sebastian Cabot discovered Newfoundland. The Tudor architecture, a very beautiful and ornate style, as illustrated in Henry VIII.'s College Chapel, Cambridge, and Henry VII.'s Chapel at Westminster, was also first introduced.

Execution of Lambert Simnel, 1467.—Lambert Simnel, a boy of low extraction, who was employed by the Duke of Clarence, Edward IV.'s brother, to impersonate Edward V., was thrown into the Tower by Henry VII. Many persons of consequence were executed during his reign.

of **Stoke**, 1487, and **Simmel**, proving but a tool in abler hands, subsided into a scullion in the king's kitchen.

127. **War with France**, 1492.—After the annexation of Brittany to France, Henry made a pretence of invading that country. By the **Treaty of Estaples** he withdrew his forces for 149,000*l*. He had before levied a benevolence upon his subjects in aid of the war, and so made money by friend and foe.

128. **The Insurrection of Perkin Warbeck**, 1492–1499.—Another claimant to the crown appeared in the person of **Perkin Warbeck**, who declared himself to be that younger brother of **Edward V.** who had been murdered with him in the Tower. He also found many adherents and believers; was recognised by the dowager Duchess of Burgundy, **Edward IV.**'s sister, as her nephew; and enlisted the sympathies of **James IV.** of Scotland, who, on his account, unsuccessfully invaded the north of England, in 1496. In 1497 Warbeck landed in Cornwall, but, at the king's approach, deserted his followers, and took refuge in the monastery of **Beaulieu**, in the **New Forest**. On Henry's promising to spare his life, he gave himself up, and was confined in the Tower; but attempting subsequently to concert a plan of escape with the young **Earl of Warwick**, his fellow-prisoner in that fortress, he was hanged at **Tyburn** in 1499. **Warwick** was beheaded on **Tower Hill** a few days later. His death is said to have been instigated by **Ferdinand** of Spain, who refused to give his daughter **Catherine** (*see* p. 37, s. 131) to Henry's son, **Arthur**, while any male descendant of the **Yorkist** line was in existence.

The Scotch king's invasion of England in 1496 was made the pretext for levying a subsidy to meet the expenses of a war with Scotland. This tax caused an insurrection in Cornwall. The rebels advanced into Kent, and were defeated by the king's troops at the **Battle of Blackheath**, 1497.

129. **Statute of Drogheda, or Poynings's Act**, 1495.—This derives its name from **Sir Edward Poynings**, deputy of Ireland, where it was passed. By this law no bill could be brought into the **Irish Parliament** without the previous approval of the **English Council**. Until the time of the Union, it formed the basis of the government of Ireland.

130. **Marriage of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. with James IV. of Scotland**, 1502.—From this marriage sprang the claim of the **Stuarts** to the English crown, **James I. of England** being the great-grandson of the pair.

131. **HENRY VIII.**, 1509–1547.—Second son of Henry VII.; married six wives, viz.: (1) **Catherine of Arragon** (1509), divorced after a period of eighteen years, ostensibly because Henry's conscience would not allow him to live with the widow of his brother, Arthur, in reality because he desired to marry Anne Boleyn; (2) **Anne Boleyn** (1533), executed on a charge of infidelity, but actually because Henry had found her successor; (3) **Jane Seymour** (1536), who died in giving birth to Edward VI.; (4) **Anne of Cleves** (1540), divorced for her want of beauty, and involving in her downfall Thomas Cromwell, the minister who had suggested the marriage, and was beheaded shortly after; (5) **Catherine Howard** (1540), beheaded for alleged incontinence previous to her marriage; and (6) **Catherine Parr** (1543), who survived her husband.

On his accession, Henry was one of the most popular of English monarchs. He was handsome, affable, and prepossessing; but the unrestrained indulgence of a despotic temper afterwards caused him to be feared and detested as the most capriciously cruel tyrant of modern times.

132. **Execution of Empson and Dudley**, 1510.—One of Henry's first concessions to popularity was to imprison Empson and Dudley, two extortionate ministers of the late king, who had shamelessly pandered to his avarice, and cruelly oppressed the people. They were executed on Tower Hill for alleged high treason.

133. **Battle of Spurs or Guinegate**, 1513.—Henry had joined Austria and Spain in a war with France. Aided by the Emperor Maximilian, he took the towns of Terouenne and Tournay, and gained a victory over the French at Guinegate, generally called the 'Battle of Spurs,' on account of the alacrity with which the French fled on that occasion.

134. **Battle of Flodden Field**, 1513.—James IV. of Scotland espoused the French cause, and invaded England. He was defeated and killed at Flodden by the Earl of Surrey. Scott's 'Marmion' contains a well-known account of this battle, in which the flower of the Scotch nobility perished with their king. A peace was concluded with France in 1514, and Louis married Henry's sister.

135. **Field of the Cloth of Gold**, 1520.—The site of a meeting which took place between Henry VIII. and Francis I. of France, in consequence of the death of the Emperor Maximilian, for whose crown the French king was a competitor. The field lay between Ardres and Guisnes, and received its name from the

luxurious magnificence of Cardinal Wolsey's preparations. (*See* **WOLSEY**, p. 118.)

136. **Defensor Fidel**, 1521.—Henry wrote a Latin book on the Seven Sacraments against Martin Luther, whose doings were now engaging the attention of Europe. For this, Leo X., to whom he sent a copy, gave him the title of Defender of the Faith, which our sovereigns still use, and which is still, in an abbreviated form, impressed upon our coinage.

137. **Commencement of the Reformation in England**, 1532.—The abuses of the Papacy, and the extended knowledge of the Bible, had gradually paved the way for the separation of England from Rome. It was accomplished in 1534, by the opposition of Pope Clement VI. to the divorce of Catherine of Arragon, when Henry threw off the Papal yoke, and was constituted by Parliament 'Supreme Head of the English Church.' At the same period statutes were passed prohibiting appeals to Rome, and abolishing the tribute of 'Peter's pence' claimed by the Pontiff.

138. **Execution of Sir Thomas More**, 1535.—Cardinal Wolsey, who had risen to an extraordinary eminence during the earlier years of Henry's reign, had fallen into disgrace from the views he held in the matter of Catherine of Arragon's divorce. He was succeeded as Lord Chancellor by Sir Thomas More, who was now executed for refusing to recognise Henry as Head of the Church, and acknowledge the validity of his marriage with Anne Boleyn.

139. **The Pilgrimage of Grace**, 1536.—One of Henry's next steps was the dissolution of the smaller monasteries. The result was a serious insurrection in Yorkshire, called the 'Pilgrimage of Grace,' the object of which was to restore the Church and suppress heresy. The insurgents were ultimately dispersed, and many of them suffered the penalty of death.

The dissolution of the smaller monasteries was followed, in 1539, by the suppression of the larger ones, and the country was inundated with beggars. The hanging of these, the burning of heretics, and the beheading of traitors, made up a tale of death far more formidable than that of any succeeding or preceding reign.

140. **The Statute of Six Articles**, 1539.—These six articles were:—(1) Transubstantiation; (2) Communion in one kind; (3) Celibacy of the Clergy; (4) Vows of Chastity; (5) Private Masses; and (6) Auricular Confession. Denial of these was punished by *burning* or other severe penalty. This law was a concession of *Henry to the Papacy* and to the popular discontent at the suppression

of the monasteries, the revenues of which had chiefly fallen into his hands. It greatly retarded the reformers' cause.

141. **Battle of Solway Moss, 1542.**—James V. of Scotland, a zealous Catholic, renewed war with England. His army was totally defeated at the Battle of Solway Moss, by a small body of English horse. This disaster broke his heart, and the crown passed to his infant daughter, Mary, Queen of Scots.

142. **EDWARD VI., 1547-1553.**—Son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour. He was a youth of promising qualities, but died too early for great performances. During his minority the kingdom was governed by a Protector—his uncle, the Duke of Somerset.

143. **Battle of Pinkie, 1547.**—To enforce, if possible, the wish of Henry VIII., that Edward VI. should marry Mary, Queen of Scots, the Protector (Somerset) invaded Scotland and gained a great victory at Pinkie. No advantage resulted, however, from this success. Mary was sent to France, where she subsequently married the Dauphin.

144. **The Protectorate of the Duke of Northumberland, 1550.**—This nobleman, then Earl of Warwick, obtained the deposition of Somerset, and became Protector.

145. **Execution of the Duke of Somerset, 1552.**—Resulted from the intrigues of Northumberland, who subsequently endeavoured, by his influence over the young king, to procure the succession for

146. **Lady Jane Grey, 1553.**—This lady was the granddaughter of Mary, sister of Henry VIII., and was married to Lord Guildford Dudley, Northumberland's son. Edward was induced to bequeath the crown to her; and, at his death, in 1553, she reigned for a few days. She had no claim to the crown.

147. **Progress of the Reformation in this reign.**—The Statute of Six Articles was repealed, a new Prayer Book prepared, and a new Communion service composed. A set of Homilies were issued to be read from the pulpit, the marriage of priests was permitted, and all images were removed from churches. These changes gave rise to some insurrections among the people; but in the main the Reformation may be said to have been completed.

148. **MARY I., 1553-1558.**—A cruel and bigoted Roman Catholic, commonly called 'Bloody Mary.' She was the daughter of Henry VIII., by Catherine of Arragon. She married **Philip of Spain** in 1554.

149. **Sir Thomas Wyatt's Insurrection, 1554.**—This tempt to regain the crown for Lady Jane Grey had its origin in general dislike to the proposed marriage of Mary and Philip Spain. It proved fatal to Lady Jane, Dudley, and Wyatt, who were executed. Northumberland suffered death as a traitor in 1553.

150. **The Marian Persecutions, 1555.**—At Mary's accession Popery was restored and the acts of Edward for the time reversed. In 1555 commenced a persecution of the Reformers, which marks the rest of her reign with blood. Latimer, Ridley, Hooper, Cranmer, and more than 250 men, women, and children, were burned at the stake.

151. **Taking of Calais by the French, 1558.**—Mary I pressed England into Philip's war with France. The combined forces gained a victory over their opponents at the **Battle of Quentin, 1557**; but the English share of glory was dearly bought by the subsequent loss of Calais, which was attacked suddenly and taken by the Duke of Guise. This disaster, with other mortifications, is said to have caused the death of the queen. (See p. 24, s. 6.)

152. **ELIZABETH, 1558–1603.**—Daughter of Henry VIII., Anne Boleyn. She was never married, although to the close of her life she encouraged suitors, and was entangled in her old age in real affection for the handsome Earl of Essex, grief for whose death is said to have hastened her own. She was of the true *macula proles*. 'She rode, shot, jested, and drank beer,' and, on many occasions, showed a kingly appreciation of her position. Her good qualities and better councillors make her reign illustrious in English annals.

The time was besides fertile in great men. Shakspeare and his splendid school of dramatists, Spenser and Bacon, Cecil and Walsingham, Raleigh, Drake, Hawkins, Cavendish and Frobisher added their lustre to the Elizabethan age.

At Elizabeth's accession the Protestant religion was re-established and **Acts of Uniformity and Supremacy** were passed (1562). The first made the use of Edward's Liturgy compulsory; the second obliged clergymen holding livings, and laymen holding crown offices to deny the authority of the Pope. To this reign also we owe the first effective **Poor Law Act** (1601).

153. **Battle of Langside, 1568.**—Mary, Queen of Scots, I returned to Scotland in 1561, on the death of her first husband **Francis II.** (See p. 39, s. 143.) After the death of her second husband, **Darnley**, in 1567, and her subsequent marriage to **Earl of Bothwell**, she was imprisoned by her subjects in the C

of Lochleven. Escaping thence, she took the field against the Regent Murray, who defeated her at Langside. She then fled to England, and was imprisoned by Elizabeth.

154. **Duke of Norfolk's Conspiracies**, 1569-1572.—These were plots to liberate the imprisoned Queen of Scots, who was willing to marry Norfolk. The second attempt proved fatal to that nobleman, who was executed for treason in 1572.

155. **Babington's Conspiracy**, 1586.—Another plot to assassinate Elizabeth and release Mary.

156. **Trial and Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots**, 1587.—In these and other conspiracies the captive Queen of Scots had been more or less directly implicated. She was now brought to trial for participation in Babington's conspiracy. Being convicted, her death-warrant was at last signed by Elizabeth, and she was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle, on February 8, 1587.

157. **Destruction of the 'Invincible Armada,'** 1588.—In 1586 Elizabeth had sent an army, under the Earl of Leicester, to assist the revolted Netherlands against Philip of Spain. The expedition miscarried, through the incapacity of its leader; but it is memorable by the death of his nephew, the accomplished Sir Philip Sydney, author of 'Arcadia,' who fell at the **Battle of Zutphen**. Irritated at Elizabeth's opposition, and piqued besides by her rejection of himself (he had been one of her numerous suitors), Philip equipped his 'Invincible Armada' and invaded England. His vast fleet was dispersed and defeated by Lord Howard of Effingham, assisted by Admirals Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher. The English lost one ship; the Spaniards many, and others were miserably wrecked.

158. **Taking of Cadiz**, 1596.—The town was taken and plundered by the English, under Lord Howard of Effingham and the Earl of Essex.

159. **Tyrone's Rebellion in Ireland**, 1598.—This was a rebellion led by Hugh O'Neale, Earl of Tyrone, who was aided by Spain. The Earl of Essex, who was sent to suppress it, failed. Tyrone finally surrendered to Essex's successor, Lord Mountjoy, in 1602.

160. **Essex's Rebellion**, 1601.—Essex had fallen into disgrace for his failure to suppress the Irish Rebellion. Finding that he did not regain the Queen's favour, he grew desperate, and attempted to raise the citizens to revolt. For this act, he was tried and executed.

CHAPTER VII.

THE HOUSE OF STUART.

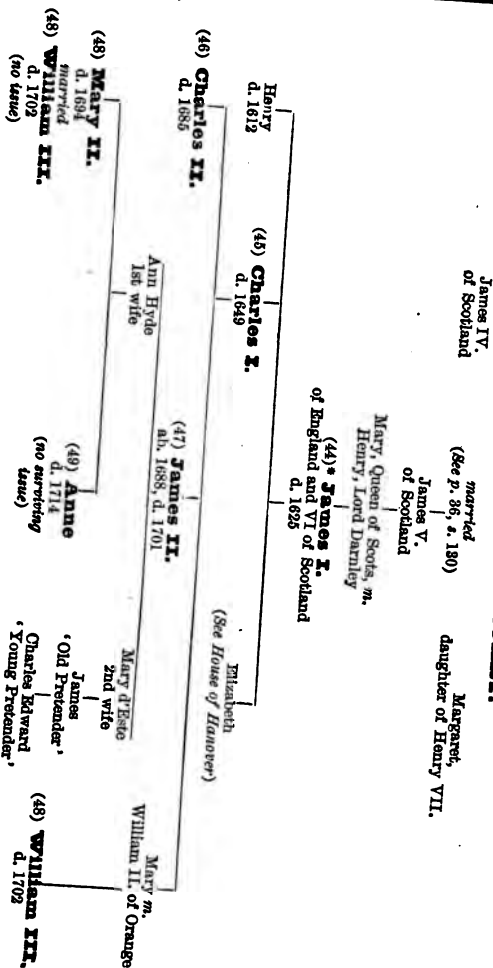
1603-1714.

161. **JAMES I.**, 1603-1625.—Son of Mary, Queen of Scots, and Lord Darnley; married **Anne of Denmark** in 1590. He was the first king of the ill-fated house of Stuart, and the sixth monarch of his name in Scotland. Most of his immediate predecessors died sudden or violent deaths: James I. was assassinated; James II. was killed by an accident; James III. was murdered; James IV. fell at Flodden; James V. sank broken-hearted after his defeat at Solway Moss; his father, Darnley, was blown up in the Kirk of Field; and Mary, his mother, was executed. Nor were he and his descendants less unfortunate. On more than one occasion he was in imminent danger of his life—once from the fierce Earl of Ruthven; again from the plot to place Arabella Stuart on the throne; and again from the Gunpowder Plot. His son, Charles I., was beheaded; Charles II. passed a great part of his life a wanderer; James II. died in exile; and the rest of his descendants remained in banishment until the extinction of his house.

James I. was a foolish pedant, vain, timorous, tyrannical, and plundered by unworthy favourites. By his panegyrists, he was styled a Solomon; but the opinion of sincerer speakers may be expressed in the words of the Duke of Sully, who called him 'the wisest fool in Christendom.' In appearance and manners he was awkward and undignified, yet he had an extravagant idea of his royal prerogative. The Norman and Saxon lines were for the first time combined in his person.

162. **Conspiracy to place Lady Arabella Stuart on the Throne**, 1603.—Sometimes also called the **Main Plot**. It was set on foot by Sir Walter Raleigh, Lord Cobham, and Lord Grey, and was connived at by Spain. Arabella Stuart was the cousin of James I., and the great-granddaughter of Margaret Tudor, Henry VIII's sister. From Margaret's first husband, James IV. of Scotland, James I. of England was directly descended. Arabella Stuart's pretensions were based upon the fact that she was the daughter of

VI.—THE HOUSE OF STUART.



* These numbers are continued from the table on p. 34.

Darnley's brother, who was descended from Margaret's second husband, Archibald Douglas, Earl of Angus.¹ Grey and Cobham were pardoned after laying their heads on the block. Raleigh was reprieved, but was executed thirteen years afterwards upon this same charge, in consequence of the Spanish dissatisfaction with his expedition to Guiana.

163. Hampton Court Conference, 1604.—Was an attempt to settle the differences between the Church and the Puritans. Little was done; but the Conference led to the preparation of the present Authorised Version of the Bible, which was published in 1611.

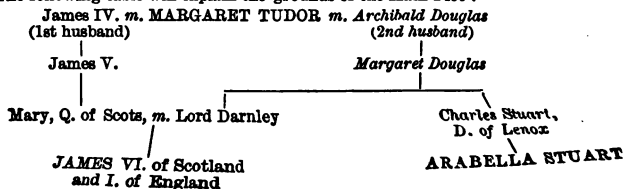
164. Gunpowder Plot (Nov. 5), 1605.—Provoked by the restrictions placed upon their religious worship, and by the renewed severity with which their priests were proscribed and persecuted, the Papists entered into a desperate plot to blow up the king and the two Houses of Parliament by gunpowder. One of the conspirators wrote privately to Lord Monteagle begging him to remain away from Parliament; and the apprehension of Guy Fawkes in the vaults below the House of Lords, where he had completed his preparations, supplied the key to this warning. He was executed, with most of his accomplices.

165. Virginia Colonised, 1607.—The founding of the settlement of James Town, in Virginia, marks the commencement of our English colonies.

166. CHARLES I., 1625-1649.—Second son of James I. and Anne of Denmark, Henry, the eldest, having died in 1612; married in 1625 to **Henrietta Maria of France**. He was accomplished, brave, and kingly, but deplorably insincere. England at his accession was swarming with religious sects of every kind, animated with political and religious zeal against the attempted encroachments of an already falling dynasty.

167. The Expeditions to Rochelle, 1627-8-8.—These were three fruitless expeditions, undertaken by the Duke of Buckingham, to relieve the Huguenots, who were besieged in Rochelle by Cardinal

¹ The following table will explain the grounds of the Main Plot:—



Richelieu. Whilst preparing for the third expedition, the Duke was assassinated at Portsmouth by one Felton.

168. **Petition of Right, 1628.**—This, the 'second Great Charter of English liberties,' was the result of the arbitrary expedients resorted to by Charles, in order to obtain the money for his wars which the Commons would not grant him. Two Parliaments had been summoned and hastily dissolved; a third presented this petition, to which the king gave an unwilling assent, on condition that subsidies should be granted. It required (1) that no loans, taxes, or other charges, should be levied without consent of Parliament; (2) that no one should be imprisoned for refusing to pay such charges; (3) that the billeting of soldiers and marines upon citizens should be discontinued; and (4) that no commissions should be issued for the execution of martial law.

169. **The Star Chamber and High Commission.**—The Star Chamber dates from the earliest period of English history. It had obtained considerable notoriety in the reign of Edward III., and its unpopular powers had been greatly restricted by various statutes passed to control its jurisdiction; but in Henry VII.'s time it rapidly rose again to its old eminence. The High Commission dates from Elizabeth. 'The former was a political, the latter a religious inquisition,' and both reached the zenith of arbitrary tyranny under Charles I. and the Primate Laud. Offenders brought before them were mercilessly fined, imprisoned, pilloried, or otherwise maltreated. Prynne, the author of '*Histrio-Mastix*,' was pilloried and lost his ears; Dr. Leighton, for a book against prelacy, was whipped, branded, and mutilated. Both these tribunals were abolished by the Long Parliament in 1641.

170. **Trial of John Hampden, 1637.**—One of Charles's expedients to obtain supplies had been the revival, in 1634, of Ship-money for the maintenance of the fleet. Formerly this tax had been confined to seaports, but it was now extended to inland towns. John Hampden, a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, refused to pay it, as being levied by arbitrary edict of the Star Chamber, at the instance of the king, in violation of the Petition of Right. He was tried, fined, and imprisoned, and his sentence greatly increased the popular irritation.

171. **The Covenant and the Covenanters, 1638.**—In an evil hour Charles attempted to force the English Liturgy on the *Scotch*. This ill-judged step produced the Covenant. The subscribers pledged themselves (1) to renounce Popery; (2) to resist *any* innovation, and to defend one another against opposition.

War between England and Scotland followed. The king's forces were inadequate to the occasion, and hostilities were concluded in 1640 by the **Treaty of Ripon**, by which a weekly sum of 5,000*l.* was to be paid to the Scotch until differences were adjusted.

172. The Long Parliament, 1640–1653.—Was the fifth Parliament assembled by King Charles: it sat until its forcible dissolution, by Cromwell, in 1653. Its chief acts were the abolition of the Star Chamber and High Commission (*see* p. 46, s. 169), and the impeachment of Wentworth Lord Strafford and Archbishop Laud.

173. Thomas Wentworth, Lord Strafford, 1593–1641 (May 12).—Strafford was at first a Parliamentarian, but afterwards joined the king's party, and became his chief adviser. He was ultimately tried, found guilty, and beheaded, upon divers charges preferred against him as President of the Council at York, as Lord Deputy of Ireland, and as Privy Councillor. The chief of these was arbitrary taxation, contrary to the Petition of Right. He was at first impeached of high treason by the Commons; but as this left the judgment in the hands of the Lords, the Commons resorted to a Bill of Attainder, by which they shared the judicial power, and thus ensured his fate.

174. William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, 1573–1645.—Induced the king to attempt the introduction of the Liturgy into Scotland, and is responsible for many arbitrary measures in matters ecclesiastical. He was executed in 1645.

175. The Irish Rebellion, 1641 (September 23).—In the hope of expelling the English, the Irish Catholics, under Sir Phelim O'Neale and others, revolted and massacred thousands of Protestants, under circumstances of great barbarity.

176. The Great Remonstrance, 1641 (November 22).—This was a document drawn up by the Commons, and enumerating the offences of the king since his accession.

177. The Five Members.—Commencement of the Civil War, 1642 (August 22).—The bishops, having protested against the proceedings of Parliament as invalid, were impeached of high treason by the Commons, and placed in custody. Thereupon the king impeached in their turn Pym, Haselrig, Hampden, Holles, and Strode, the five members who had conducted the impeachment, and endeavoured to arrest them. This breach of parliamentary privilege excited such popular resentment that the king withdrew from London, and, on August 22, raised his royal standard at Nottingham. The civil war began. His followers were called Cavaliers, and those of the Parliament Roundheads.

178. **Battle of Edgehill**, 1642 (October 23).—Between the king and the Parliamentarians, under the Earl of Essex. A drawn battle.

179. **Battle of Chalgrove Field**, 1643 (June 18).—A skirmish in which Hampden was killed. (See p. 46, s. 170.)

180. **First Battle of Newbury**, 1643 (September 24).—Memorable by the death of Lord Falkland. The victory undecided.

181. **The Solemn League and Covenant**, 1643 (September 25).—This was a league between the Scots and the Parliamentarians. They were to defend each other, the Scots were to send 21,000 men to aid in the war, and Popery, Prelacy, Heresy, and Schism were to be put down. An **Assembly of Divines** was held at Westminster to promote uniformity of worship in the two countries.

182. **Battle of Marston Moor**, 1644 (July 2).

183. **Second Battle of Newbury**, 1644 (October 27).

184. **Battle of Naseby**, 1645 (June 14).—In these three battles Charles's fate was sealed by the skill and valour of General Fairfax and Oliver Cromwell—the latter of whom came into action at Marston Moor—and the impetuosity of Prince Rupert. At Naseby, Charles gave himself up to the Scotch, who subsequently handed him over to Parliament, on receiving the arrears of pay due to them. (See p. 46, s. 171.)

185. **Battle of Philiphaugh**, 1645 (September 13).—In this battle the Marquis of Montrose, a hitherto victorious adherent of the king, was defeated by the Parliamentarians.

186. **The Self-denying Ordinance**, 1645, rendered Members of Parliament ineligible for civil and military offices. Cromwell managed to except himself from its operation, but Essex, Manchester, and some others who were opposed to his designs, were got rid of.

187. **Battle of Preston**, 1648.—In this battle the Scots, who had taken the field for the king, were defeated by Cromwell.

188. **King Charles executed**, 1649.—After being confined in various places, the king was imprisoned in Carisbrooke Castle, then in Hurst Castle, and then formally tried at Whitehall. He was beheaded, and levying war against his Parliament and people.

Among the causes of his fate were (1) the Irish Rebellion of 1641; (2) the ill-judged attempt to impose the English Liturgy on the Scotch, which produced the party who first attacked him; and (3) the disaffection of the numerous sects with which the country swarmed, some of whom (the Fifth Monarchy men)

instance) were opposed to the supremacy of mortal man altogether and most of whom were oppressed by the king, or had been oppressed by his predecessors. He was at first successful because his followers had the greater military experience, but his ultimate failure was inevitable, because they were fewer in number than his opponents. Add to this that he had no means, and the Parliament every means of raising money.

189. **THE COMMONWEALTH**, 1649-1653.—The death of Charles was followed by the institution of a republic. The government was placed in the hands of a Council of State, of which Bradshaw, the king's judge, was president, and John Milton Latin secretary. Cromwell was made Lord Deputy of Ireland.

190. **Battle of Dunbar**, 1650.—Cromwell defeats the Covenanters.

191. **Battle of Worcester**, 1651.—Cromwell defeats Prince Charles, who had been crowned in Scotland, and had then marched into England. Prince Charles escaped to France.

192. **The Navigation Act**, 1651.—By this, no foreign commodities could be imported into this country, except in English ships, or in the ships of the country whence they came. The Parliament designed a blow at their rivals in commerce, the Dutch, who depended chiefly on their carrying trade.

193. **The First Dutch War**, 1652.—A succession of naval engagements ensued between the English under Blake, and the Dutch under Van Tromp, De Witt, and De Ruyter. The war was terminated by the victory of the former off the Texel, in July 1653, and the conclusion of the **First Treaty of Westminster** in 1654.

194. **The Protectorate of OLIVER CROMWELL**, 1653-1658.—Foreseeing the opposition of the Long Parliament to his ambitious designs, Cromwell, with the aid of his soldiery, dissolved it suddenly. It was replaced by the so-called 'Barebones' Parliament, which subsequently resigned its power into Cromwell's hands. By a document styled an Instrument of Government, drawn up by his officers, he was constituted Lord Protector for life, and provision was made for a Triennial Parliament.

195. **The Spanish War**, 1655-1658.—England joined Louis XIV. in his war with Spain. Jamaica, which has ever since belonged to this country, was taken by Admiral Penn and Colonel Venables. In 1658 Dunkirk was also taken by the allies, and

handed to the English. It was afterwards sold to France by **Charles II.** for 500,000*l.*

196. **The Protectorate of RICHARD CROMWELL, -1659.**—In his later years Cromwell suffered much disquietude from the numerous plots against his life. At his death, his son **Richard** succeeded to the Protectorate; but, possessing none of the abilities of his father, he found himself the mere puppet of the generals of the army, and abdicated.

197. **The Restoration, 1660.**—A short period of anarchy followed the abdication of Richard Cromwell. General **Monk**, commander of the Scotch army, after feeling his way with caution and dissimulation, marched into England, and finally declared for **Charles II.**, who landed at Dover on May 25. The Restoration, as the return of the exiled family was called, was mainly attributable to **Monk**, whose motives, however, were not interested to entitle him to the highest praise.

198. **CHARLES II., 1660-1685.**—Eldest son of **Charles I.** and **Henrietta Maria** of France; married **Catherine of Braganza** in 1662. The 'Merry Monarch,' as he was called, was the most dismal-looking personage. His manners were easy and dissipated; but he was cynical, extravagant, and vicious. Reckoned moderate at the beginning of his reign, he nevertheless executed **Van Rensselaer** and **Algernon Sidney**, in opposition to all rules of equity and constitutional law.

199. **The Corporation Act, 1661.**—The chief feature of this Act was the obliging all officers of corporate bodies to take an oath of non-resistance to kingly authority.

200. **The Act of Uniformity, 1662.**—Obliged all clergy (1) to receive episcopal ordination, (2) to assent to the Book of Common Prayer, (3) to take the oath of canonical obedience, renounce the Solemn League and Covenant (which had been ordered to be burnt by the common hangman), and (5) to renounce the use of arms against the king. Nearly 2,000 incumbents refused their livings rather than comply, and were styled Nonconformists.

201. **The Conventicle Acts, 1664-1670.**—To prevent the meeting of Nonconformists in places other than Established churches, an Act was passed prohibiting the assembling of more than a number of persons for religious purposes. In 1670 a second Act was passed, lessening the penalties as regards the hearers, but increasing them as regards the preachers.

202. **The Second Dutch War**, 1664-1667 (*See* p. 49, s. 193).—Began well, but ended ingloriously. In 1667 the Dutch, under De Ruyter, sailed up the Medway, and destroyed Sheerness. Peace was concluded by the **Treaty of Breda**, under which New York and other colonies were ceded to this country by Holland.

203. **The Great Plague**, 1665.—Broke out in St. Giles's, and raged from April to September. More than 100,000 persons are supposed to have fallen victims to this fearful scourge, which made a desert of the metropolis while it prevailed.

204. **The Five Mile Act**, 1665.—By this the Nonconformist teachers were forbidden, except when travelling, to come within five miles of any corporate town or place where they had formerly preached.

205. **The Great Fire**, 1666.—Followed the plague, and burned 89 churches and 13,000 houses. It was attributed, without reason, to the popish faction, and an inscription which formerly stood on the Monument was to this effect.

206. **The Cabal**, 1667.—Took its name from the initial letters of the names of the members of the Administration after the fall of the king's chief minister, Clarendon. (*See* p. 122.) The names were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley (afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury), and Lauderdale. They abetted the king in his worst proceedings.

207. **The Triple Alliance**, 1668.—Between England, Sweden, and Holland, to check the advances of Louis XIV. upon the Spanish Netherlands, which he claimed in right of his wife, Maria Theresa. The **Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle** effected this object.

208. **The Secret Treaty of Dover**, 1670.—Between Louis XIV. and Charles. By this Louis agreed to give Charles a pension, and assist him with armed force in danger, upon the condition that Charles would aid him against Spain and Holland, and profess the Roman Catholic religion.

209. **The Third Dutch War**, 1672-1674 (*See* p. 51, s. 202).—Resulted from the Treaty of Dover. Peace was again concluded in 1674, by a second **Treaty of Westminster**. (*See* p. 49, s. 193.)

210. **The Test Act**, 1673.—Chiefly levelled at the Papists, though it also applied to Dissenters. By it, no one could hold any office without abjuring transubstantiation, taking the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and receiving the sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England.

211. **Titus Oates' Plot**, 1678.—A pretended plot of the Roman Catholics to murder the king and place the Duke of York (after-

wards James II.) on the throne, invented by one Titus Oates, a man of infamous character. The mysterious death of Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey, the Protestant magistrate who took the depositions, and other circumstances, tended to support the alleged discovery of Oates, and many innocent persons, among whom was Lord Stafford, were condemned and executed.

212. **The Papists' Disabling Bill**, 1678.—Excluded Catholics from Parliament. It originated in the popular apprehensions of danger from papists.

213. **Habeas Corpus Act**, 1679.—Provided, among other things, that (1) prisoners should be produced on trial; (2) that they should not, when once delivered, be recommitted for the same offence; (3) that they should be tried, at latest, the second term after commitment; and (4) that they should not be imprisoned beyond seas.

214. **Battle of Bothwell Bridge**, 1679.—The Duke of Monmouth defeated the Scotch Covenanters, who had risen and murdered one of their oppressors, Archbishop Sharp.

215. **The Exclusion Bill**, 1679.—To exclude the Catholic Duke of York from the succession on account of his religion.

216. **Whigs and Tories**, 1680.—These epithets now came into use. The former were the country party, whom their adversaries compared to the Scotch Presbyterians (Whigs); the latter were the Church and court party, whom the others christened Tories, after the Papal banditti in Ireland. The first endeavoured to prevent the ascendancy of Popery; the second opposed their efforts.

217. **The Rye House Plot**, 1683.—A plot for an insurrection, and for the assassination of the king near the Rye House, in Hertfordshire, on his return from Newmarket. Lord William Russell and Algernon Sidney, who were implicated in the affair, but not to the extent of conniving at assassination, were condemned and executed.

218. **JAMES II.**, 1685-1688.—Second son of Charles I. by Henrietta Maria of France; married (1) **Anne Hyde**, in 1660, and (2) **Mary d'Este, of Modena**, in 1673. He was ignorant and bigoted, and sacrificed everything to the exaltation of his prerogative and the dream of reconstructing a Popish despotism.

219. **Monmouth's Rebellion**, 1685.—James, Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles II., landed from Holland, at *Lyme*, in Dorset, with a few followers, and, declaring himself *legitimate*, laid claim to the crown. He was defeated by the Earl of *Faversham*, at the **Battle of Sedgemoor**, made prisoner and

executed. A descent from Holland upon Scotland was made at the same time by the Duke of Argyll, but it also was unsuccessful, and Argyll was executed.

220. **The Bloody Assize, 1685.**—The Lord Chief Justice Jeffreys, who tried the prisoners after Monmouth's rebellion, behaved with such unexampled severity that his progress in the western counties received this name. More than 300 of the insurgents were executed and nearly 1,000 transported by his sentences.

221. **Trial of the Seven Bishops, 1688.**—In 1687, with a view of serving the interests of Romanism, James had issued a **Declaration of Indulgence**, permitting to Catholics and Dissenters the free exercise of their religion. In 1688 he re-issued it with additions, and ordered it to be read from the pulpit in every church in the United Kingdom. Sancroft, the primate, with six bishops (viz., Ken of Bath and Wells, Lloyd of St. Asaph, Turner of Ely, Lake of Chichester, White of Peterborough, and Trelawny of Bristol), petitioned against this. They were tried for libel, but acquitted. These proceedings, and the birth of the 'Old Pretender,' brought about

222. **The Revolution, 1688.**—William, Prince of Orange, son-in-law of James, was now invited to England by the Whigs, and landed with a Dutch army at Torbay. James fled the kingdom. After a short interregnum, William and Mary were crowned in June 1689. Those clergymen who would not take the oath of allegiance were termed Non-jurors.

223. **WILLIAM III. and MARY II., 1689-1702.**—William was Prince of Orange and Stadtholder of the Netherlands. He was the son of William II. of Holland, and of Mary, daughter of Charles I. His wife, whom he had married in 1677, was James II.'s eldest daughter, by his first wife, Anne Hyde. Though he established the liberties of England on a firm basis, his rare qualities as a ruler could never wholly reconcile his English subjects to his cold and ungenial manners. Mary was more popular, but had very little share in the power. Her position as the daughter of James II. and the wife of William III. was perplexing, and she appears to have been a better wife than child. She died in 1694, from which date William reigned alone.

224. **The Toleration Act, 1689.**—Relieved Dissenters who took the Oaths of Allegiance and Supremacy and made a declaration against transubstantiation, from all penal statutes affecting the exercise and profession of their religion.

225. **Battle of Killiecrankie**, 1689.—William's troops, under Mackay, were here defeated by the famous Viscount Dundee (Graham of Claverhouse), who took the field in James's favour. But the leader fell in the fight, and Scotland submitted to the king.

226. **Siege of Londonderry**, 1689.—James, supplied with arms and money by Louis XIV., had landed in Ireland. He besieged Londonderry, which braved a painful siege, and was at last relieved by William's troops.

227. **Bill of Rights**, 1689.—This has been styled the 'third great Charter of English liberties.' It embodied the conditions on which the crown was offered to and accepted by William and Mary. It declared that, without the consent of Parliament, the suspending of or dispensing with laws, the levy of taxes, and the maintenance of a standing army in time of peace, were illegal. It insisted, among other things, upon the right of subjects to petition the king, upon free elections of members of Parliament, freedom of debate, and frequent sessions, and upon the impartial impanelment and returning of jurors.

228. **Battle of the Boyne**, 1690.—William defeated James, and lost his general, Schomberg. James escaped to France, where he died in 1701.

229. **Battle of Aughrim**, 1691.—Won by Ginkel, William's general, over the French troops, under St. Ruth. This was the last battle fought for James in Ireland. The capitulation of Limerick, two months after, closed hostilities, and completed the expulsion of the Jacobite standard from that country.

230. **The Jacobites**.—By this name the adherents of James were now known. They must not be confounded with the Jacobins, who were advanced republicans during the great French Revolution.

231. **Massacre of Glencoe**, 1692.—With a view of inducing the Highlanders to lay down their arms, an indemnity was offered to those who took the oaths of allegiance by a certain date. Mc Ian, of Glencoe, who, by an accident, did not arrive in time, fell a victim to the hatred of the Master of Stair, Secretary of State, and was massacred with his clan. This act, for which William was not wholly to blame, made him very unpopular.

232. **Battle of La Hogue**, 1692.—War had been declared against Louis, chiefly on account of the support given by him to the Jacobite cause. In 1690 the English and Dutch fleets had been defeated by the French off Beachy Head. In this battle the French fleet, under Tourville, was defeated by Admiral Russell.

233. The Triennial Act, 1694.—Limited the duration of a Parliament to three years. It remained law till the reign of George I., when the Septennial Act was substituted for it. (*See* p. 59, s. 251.)

234. Peace of Ryswick, 1697.—Suspended hostilities with France. Spain, Holland, and Germany were also parties to it. Louis agreed to acknowledge William, and to refrain from intriguing against him. The war had not been a fortunate one, the English troops having been defeated at **Steinkirk** in 1692, and at **Landen** in 1693.

235. The First Partition Treaty, 1698.—Charles II. of Spain was supposed to be at the point of death. A treaty was accordingly entered into between William and Louis, for dividing the Spanish dominions between the Dauphin of France, the Archduke Charles (afterwards Charles III. of Spain), and the Electoral Prince of Bavaria.

236. The Second Partition Treaty, 1700.—The Electoral Prince of Bavaria died suddenly, and a second Partition Treaty was entered into to divide the Spanish territories between the other two.

237.—The Grand Alliance, 1701.—After the Partition Treaties, the King of Spain left his entire dominions to Philip, Duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin. This brought France to the side of Spain, and led to an alliance between England, Austria, and Holland, to support the claim of the Archduke Charles of Austria to the Spanish throne.

238. The Act of Settlement, 1701.—By the death of the Duke of Gloucester, the only surviving child of the Princess Anne (afterwards Queen Anne), it became necessary to provide for the succession at her death. An Act was accordingly passed to exclude the Catholic Stuart line from the throne, settling the crown upon the Electress Sophia of Hanover, the Protestant granddaughter of James I., through his eldest daughter Elizabeth, who had married the Elector Palatine. Several important additions to the Bill of Rights (*See* p. 54, s. 227) were included in this Act. The commissions of judges, for example, were to run during good behaviour (*quamdiu se bene gesserint*); but they might be removed upon an address of both Houses.

239. The National Debt.—Is generally considered to date from the reign of William III. It was a little more than a million at the time of the Revolution. In 1697 it had risen to several millions. It originated, however, in the mismanagement of the two preceding reigns, and has been increased by all the wars in

which this country has since been engaged, and especially by the French revolutionary war. It now (1870) amounts to 749,314,133*l.*; interest, 26,650,253*l.* annually.

240. **ANNE**, 1702–1714.—Second daughter of James II., by his first wife, Anne Hyde; married **Prince George of Denmark** in 1683. Her abilities were moderate, her nature indolent, but she was amiable and generous.

241. **War of the Spanish Succession**, 1702–1713.—In pursuance of the Grand Alliance (*See* p. 55, s. 237), war was declared against France and Spain. John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, commanded the forces of the Allies.

242. **Battle of Blenheim**, 1704.—Marlborough defeated Tallard.

243. **Battle of Ramillies**, 1706.—Marlborough defeated Villeroi.

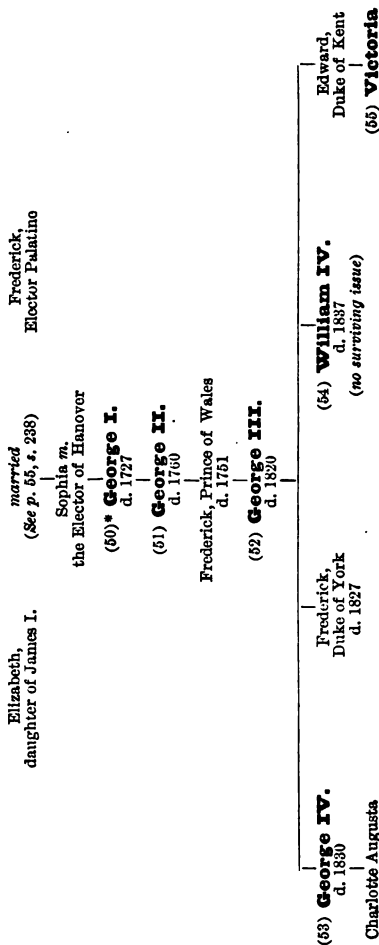
244. **The Act of Union**, 1707.—United England with Scotland as one kingdom, under the name of **Great Britain**. The succession was to remain vested in the House of Hanover; there was to be one Parliament, to which Scotland was to send sixteen peers and forty-five commoners; both nations were to have equal freedom of trade, and the Scotch were to retain their religion and civil laws.

245. **Battle of Oudenarde**, 1708.—Marlborough defeated Vendôme.

246. **Battle of Malplaquet**, 1709.—Marlborough defeated Villars.

247. **Treaty of Utrecht**, 1713.—Concluded the war of the Spanish Succession. France acknowledged the Hanoverian succession; Spain was to be held by Louis' grandson (Philip V.), but France and Spain were never to be united under one sovereign. Minorca and Gibraltar (which latter, during this war, had been taken by Admiral Sir G. Rooke in 1704) were ceded to this country by Spain; Hudson's Bay Territory, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland by France.

VII.—THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.



* These numbers are continued from the table on p. 48.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER, 1714-

248. **GEORGE I.**, 1714-1727.—Was the son of the Electress Sophia of Hanover, on whom the succession devolved by the Act of Settlement. (*See* p. 55, s. 238.) His wife was **Sophia Dorothea of Zell**, whom he married in 1682. He was brave, and possessed of considerable ability, but was unpopular in England on account of his German habits and manners.

249. **Earl of Mar's Rebellion**, 1715.—This was in favour of James, commonly called the 'Old Pretender,' son of James II. by Mary d'Este, his second wife. Another rising took place in the north of England, under Mr. Forster and the Earl of Derwentwater. Mar was defeated by the Royalists at the **Battle of Sheriffmuir**. On the same day the royal troops defeated Derwentwater at Preston, and that unfortunate young nobleman, Lord Kenmure, and thirty others, were afterwards executed.

250. **The Riot Act**, 1715.—Passed to prevent the frequent disturbances arising from disorderly political assemblies.

251. **The Septennial Act**, 1716.—Passed in the fear that, under the Triennial Act of 1694 (*See* p. 55, s. 233), the Jacobites would come into power. It enabled Parliament to sit seven years without a dissolution. This is the present arrangement.

252. **The Triple and Quadruple Alliances**, 1717, 1718.—Between Great Britain, France, Austria, and Holland, to prevent Philip of Spain from violating the Treaty of Utrecht. (*See* p. 56, s. 247.)

253. **The South Sea Scheme, or Bubble**, 1720.—This was an association for carrying on a trade with the countries situate along the Pacific. In return for the exclusive right to do this, the Company were to take the responsibility of the National Debt. By the dishonourable devices of the Directors, London was filled with speculators, and numerous schemes were projected in imitation of the *South Sea scheme*. Thousands of families were ruined by this *popular mania*.

254. **GEORGE II.**, 1727-1760.—Was the only son of George I by Sophia Dorothea of Zell. Married **Caroline of Anspach**. No less German in his manners than his father, he possessed great personal courage, and was the last English king that appeared in battle.

255. **War with Spain**, 1739-1748.—Arose from the contraband trade carried on by this country with the Spanish colonies. In 1739 Admiral Vernon took Porto Bello with six ships, and in 1741 an unsuccessful attack was made on Carthagea. Admiral Anson at this time circumnavigated the globe in the 'Centurion,' and took a Spanish treasure ship worth 300,000*l*.

256. **War of the Austrian Succession**, 1740-1748.—By a decree of 1713, styled the 'Pragmatic Sanction,' the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany had secured the succession of his hereditary dominions to his daughter, Maria Theresa. This, at his death, gave rise to the war of the Austrian Succession, in which England and Holland espoused the cause of Maria Theresa against the Elector of Bavaria and Frederick of Prussia, who were supported by France and Spain. Frederick of Prussia claimed Silesia.

257. **Battle of Dettingen**, 1743.—The French, under Marshal Noailles, were defeated by the Allies, commanded by King George in person. But this advantage was soon after more than counterbalanced by the

258. **Battle of Fontenoy**, 1745, in which Marshal Saxe defeated the Duke of Cumberland. This was the worst defeat we ever sustained at the hands of France.

259. **Rebellion of the Young Pretender**, 1745-1746.—This was Charles Edward, grandson of James II., also called the 'Young Chevalier,' who landed at Scotland, and was crowned in Edinburgh.

260. **Battle of Preston Pans**, 1745.—The king's troops, under Sir John Cope, were defeated by Charles Edward.

261. **Battle of Culloden**, 1746.—The Duke of Cumberland here finally overthrew the Pretender, who escaped to France. He died at Rome, in 1788.

262. **Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle**, 1748.—In 1746 actions took place off Finisterre under Anson, and at Belle Isle under Hawke, in which the English were victorious. The Spanish war and the war of the Austrian Succession were finally terminated by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle between England, Holland, and Austria, and France and Spain. Its chief features were the mutual restoration of conquests; the fortifications of Dunkirk were to be demolished; and the King of Prussia was to retain Silesia.

263. **Hostilities in India, 1746–1757.**—During the war of the Austrian Succession, hostilities had broken out in India between the English and French settlers; and, at first, the English cause seemed hopeless. By the **Capture of Arcot**, Clive, who then appeared upon the scene, retrieved the English fortunes.

In 1757 Clive fought the **Battle of Plassey**, defeating Surajah Dowlah, the infamous hero of the **Black Hole of Calcutta**, a dungeon eighteen feet square, into which he crowded 146 Englishmen, of whom 123 died before morning. From Plassey dates the foundation of the British Indian Empire.

264. **Seven Years' War, 1756–1763.**—The attacks made by the French upon the English North American settlements led to a general European war, the chief combatants in which were England and Prussia on the one side, against France and Austria on the other.

265. **Expedition against Minorca, 1756.**—Admiral Byng having been despatched, under great disadvantages, to relieve Minorca, which had been taken by the Duc de Richelieu, failed in the attempt, and was shot by sentence of a court-martial.

266. **The Kloster Seven Conventien, 1757.**—By this, Hanover was surrendered to the French, in consequence of the defeat of the Duke of Cumberland by the Duc de Richelieu.

267. **Battle of Minden, 1759.**—Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick and Lord George Sackville defeated the French, but the victory was rendered incomplete through Lord George's insubordination.

268. **Taking of Quebec, 1759.**—Both the French general, Montcalm, and the English general, Wolfe, were killed in this decisive battle, which resulted in the capture of all Canada by the English.

269. **GEORGE III., 1760–1820.**—Was the grandson of George II., his father being Frederick, Prince of Wales, who died in 1751; married **Charlotte Sophia of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz** in 1761. His worst fault was the pertinacity with which he clung to opinions he had erroneously formed. On the whole, he was popular with his people. During part of his reign he was insane.

270. **Treaty of Paris, or Fontainebleau, 1763.**—Terminated the Seven Years' War. By it England gained Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Cape Breton, Newfoundland, P. Edward Island, and Senegal. Belle Isle, which had been taken from the French in 1761, was given in exchange for Minorca; and Florida was ceded by Spain for the Havannah.

271. **Prosecution of John Wilkes, 1763.**—John Wilkes was member for Aylesbury, and editor of a scurrilous paper called the 'North Briton.' He was prosecuted for libelling the king, but escaped by pleading his parliamentary privilege. Although a man of infamous character, he became for some years a popular hero.

272. **The War of American Independence, 1775–1783.**—With a view of repairing the losses caused by the 'Seven Years' War,' England attempted to tax her American colonies; first a stamp tax was imposed (1765) and repealed; after that a duty on tea (1767). Thereupon they revolted.

273. **Battle of Lexington, 1775.**—This was the first encounter between the Colonists and the Royal troops. It was followed by the

274. **Battle of Bunker's Hill, 1775.**—The English defeated the Colonists; but no decisive results succeeded.

275. **Surrender at Saratoga, 1777.**—In 1776 the revolted colonies issued a **Declaration of Independence**. George Washington, the American Commander-in-chief, was defeated at **Brooklyn** (1776) and **Brandywine** (1777), and the insurgent capital, Philadelphia, was taken. These successes were however counterbalanced by the disaster at Saratoga, where General Burgoyne surrendered with his troops to the American general Gates.

276. **Siege of Gibraltar, 1779–1783.**—Spain and France had espoused the cause of the Americans. This led to the brilliant defence of Gibraltar by General Elliott, who held that fortress successfully for nearly three years against the combined fleets and armies of France and Spain, until the siege was raised by Lord Howe, in February 1783.

277. **The 'No-Popery' Riots, 1780.**—In consequence of the abolition of a penal enactment against the Roman Catholics, the rabble, inflamed by the speeches of Lord George Gordon and others, committed many acts of violence. Prisons were broken open, houses and Roman Catholic chapels burned and pillaged, and the metropolis was for some days under the absolute control of a lawless mob.

278. **Battle of York Town, 1781.**—Lord Cornwallis surrendered to the combined army of the French and Americans under Count Rochambeau and General George Washington.

279. **Treaties of Versailles, 1783.**—Between England, the United States, Spain, France, and Holland. England recognised the United States of America. France received St. Lucia, Tobago, *Chandernagore*, and Pondicherry, in exchange for Dominica, Grenada, *St. Vincent*, and other West Indian Islands. Spain received Florida and *Minorca*, and Holland all her possessions except *Negapatam*.

280. **Impeachment of Warren Hastings, 1786.**—Warren Hastings was Governor-General of India. He was accused of cruelty and misgovernment; and impeached by Burke, Fox, Sheridan, and others. His trial, which commenced in 1788, was prolonged until 1795, when he was acquitted, and pensioned by the East India Company.

281. **Wars with France, 1793–1803, 1803–1815.**—Commenced shortly after the execution of Louis XVI., in 1793; and ended with the final downfall of Napoleon Bonaparte, in 1815.

282. **Howe's Victory of the 1st of June, 1794.**—The Brest fleet were defeated off Ushant, and twelve ships of the line captured.

283. **Capture of the Cape, 1795.**—The Dutch had leagued themselves with France, and war was declared with Holland. The Cape was taken by Admiral Elphinstone.

284. **Battle of Cape St. Vincent, 1797 (February 14).**—War was declared against England by Spain, and the Spanish fleet were defeated by Admiral Sir John Jervis, aided by Nelson and Collingwood.

285. **Bank Restriction Bill, 1797 (March).**—To allow the Bank to pay in notes instead of specie.

286. **Mutiny at Spithead and the Nore, 1797 (April 6 and June 12).**—The complaints of the seamen were bad pay, bad provisions, and general neglect. The first mutiny was quelled by Lord Howe; the second, led by one Richard Parker, and more serious, was also quelled. The ringleaders were hanged.

287. **Battle of Camperdown, 1797 (October 11).**—A victory of Admiral Duncan over the Dutch Admiral De Winter.

288. **Lord Edward Fitzgerald's Rebellion, 1798.**—Arose from the disturbing influence of the French Revolution and opposition made by England to legislative reform and extended commercial rights in Ireland. It was put down by the energy of Lord Cornwallis and General Lake, who finally defeated the insurgents at Vinegar Hill. Lord Edward was mortally wounded whilst being arrested, and died in prison before trial.

289. **Battle of the Nile, or Aboukir, 1798.**—Ended in the total defeat of the French fleet by Nelson. Nine line-of-battle ships fell into the hands of the English. This is held to be one of the fifteen decisive battles of the world, and with it collapsed Bonaparte's projected empire in the East.

290. **Union of England and Ireland, 1799 (March 27).**—This was chiefly the result of the Irish Rebellion. By the union of the *Parliaments of England and Ireland*, it was arranged that the

should be 100 Irish members in the House of Commons, and 32 the House of Lords, i.e. 28 peers and 4 bishops.

291. **Siege of Acre**, 1799 (May 20).—Bonaparte was repulsed by Sir Sidney Smith.

292. **Battle of Alexandria**, 1801 (March 21).—The French were defeated by Sir Ralph Abercrombie.

293. **Battle of Copenhagen**, 1801 (April 2).—The Danish fleet was defeated by Nelson. Eighteen vessels were taken or destroyed.

294. **Treaty of Amiens**, 1802.—Between England and France, Spain, and Holland. England restored all her colonial conquests in France, Spain, and Holland, retaining only Ceylon and Trinidad. The peace lasted until May 1803, when the war with France was renewed.

295. **The Boulogne Flotilla**, 1803.—Equipped by Bonaparte for the invasion of England. The project came to nothing.

296. **Battle of Assaye**, 1803.—A victory won by General Arthur Wellesley over the Mahrattas.

297. **Battle of Trafalgar**, 1805.—Resulted in the total defeat of the combined French and Spanish fleets, by Nelson and Collingwood. Nineteen vessels were taken or destroyed and 20,000 prisoners were made, but Nelson was killed.

298. **Battle of Maida**, 1806.—The French, under Regnier, were defeated by Sir John Stuart.

299. **Secret Treaty of Tilsit**, 1807.—Russia, France, and Prussia agreed to close their ports against England, and the Danes were to be compelled to place their fleet at the disposal of the French, who were in want of ships. To prevent this an English armament was sent to take charge of the Danish fleet. The opposition of the Danes to this latter arrangement led to the

300. **Bombardment of Copenhagen**, 1807.—The Danes surrendered their fleet to Gambier, Cathcart, and Wellesley.

301. **Battle of Vimiera**, 1808.—England had allied herself with Spain and Portugal against the French, and the Peninsular War commenced. After a battle gained by the English at Roliça, Arthur Wellesley defeated Junot at Vimiera, and by the **Convention of Cintra** the French army evacuated Portugal.

302. **Battle of Corunna**, 1809 (January 16).—Soult was defeated by Sir John Moore, who was killed in the moment of victory.

303. **Basque or Aix Roads**, 1809 (April).—Lord Cochrane here blew up four French ships of the line, and destroyed a number of merchant and other vessels.

304. **Walcheren Expedition**, 1809.—Under the Earl

Chatham and Sir R. Strachan, to attack Antwerp. It was a complete failure, which is said to have cost 20,000,000*l*.

305. Battle of Talavera, 1809 (July 28).—Sir A. Wellesley defeated Victor, and was, in consequence, created Duke of Wellington.

306. Battle of Busaco, 1810.—Wellington defeated Massena.

307. Battle of Barossa, 1811 (March 5).—Graham defeated Victor.

308. Battle of Fuentes d'Onoro, 1811 (May 3).—Wellington again defeated Massena, who was thereupon recalled by Napoleon.

309. Battle of Albuera, 1811 (May 16).—Beresford defeated Soult.

310. Captures of Ciudad-Rodrigo and Badajoz, 1812 (January 19 and April 6).—Both these towns were taken by Wellington.

311. Battle of Salamanca, 1812 (July 22).—Wellington defeated Marmont.

312. Battle of Vittoria, 1813 (June 21).—Wellington defeated Jourdan and Joseph Bonaparte, King of Spain.

313. Battle of the Pyrenees, 1813 (July 28).—Wellington defeated Massena.

314. Battle of Toulouse, 1814 (April 10).—After gaining the **Battle of Orthès** (February 27), Wellington advanced towards the Garonne and defeated Soult at Toulouse.

315. Treaty of Paris, 1814.—Between France, and England, Austria, Russia, and Prussia. France was reduced to her boundaries of 1792. The Bourbons were restored; Napoleon, retaining his title of emperor, retired to the island of Elba; and England gave back all her colonial conquests except the Mauritius, Tobago, Malta, and St. Lucia.

316. Treaty of Ghent, 1814.—During the French war hostilities had also broken out with America, chiefly on account of the right of search exercised by us for English seamen serving in American vessels. The Treaty of Ghent effected a reconciliation.

317. Battles of Quatre-Bras and Waterloo, 1815.—Wellington defeated Napoleon, who had returned from Elba. This war is called the 'War of the Hundred Days,' that period having elapsed since Napoleon's escape. After his defeat at Waterloo he surrendered himself to the English, and was sent into exile at St. Helena, under charge at first of Admiral Cockburn, and, after him, Sir Hudson Lowe. There he died, six years afterwards, in 1821.

318. Treaty of Paris, 1815.—Between France, and England,

Austria, Russia, and Prussia. France was reduced to her boundaries of 1790. She was to pay the expenses of the war, to maintain 150,000 of the allied forces in her frontier fortresses for five years, and to compensate the different powers for the spoiliations they had suffered at her hands.

319. **Bombardment of Algiers, 1816.**—To suppress the Algerine pirates, Admiral Lord Exmouth bombarded Algiers, and obliged the Dey to release over 1,000 Christian slaves.

320. **GEORGE IV., 1820–1830.**—The eldest son of George III.; married, in 1795, to **Caroline of Brunswick**. The 'First Gentleman in Europe,' as his admirers styled him, was, nevertheless, profligate and prodigal, and has little claim to the respect of posterity. He had been Prince Regent since February 1811, in consequence of the old king's insanity.

321. **The Cato Street Conspiracy, 1820.**—After the peace of 1815 much distress prevailed. The cessation of war threw many out of employ, taxes were heavy, and bread was dear. The Cato Street conspiracy by Thistlewood and others to assassinate the Ministers, and form a new Government, was one result of the popular disquiet. It became known to the authorities in time, and the chief conspirators were executed.

322. **The Trial of Queen Caroline, 1820.**—The queen had been separated from her husband in 1797. On his accession in 1820 she claimed her rights. She was met by charges of immorality, and a bill was introduced for her degradation. Owing to the able defence of her advocates, it was abandoned. She died in 1821.

323. **War with Burmah, 1824–1826.**—Arose from certain disputes respecting frontiers between the Burmese and the East India Company. By the treaty which concluded it, Assam, Aracan, and Tenasserim were added to the British possessions.

324. **War with Turkey, 1827.**—Greece had revolted against Turkey. England, France, and Russia espoused the cause of the Greeks, and defeated the Turkish and Egyptian fleet, under Ibrahim Pasha, in the **Bay of Navarino**. This brought about the independence of Greece.

325. **The Catholic Emancipation Bill, 1829.**—In 1828 the Corporation and Test Acts of Charles II.'s reign (*see pp. 50, 51, s. 199, 210*) were repealed. By the Catholic Emancipation Bill of Sir Robert, then Mr. Peel, Roman Catholics were rendered eligible for seats in Parliament, and offices generally, with the exception of those of Regent, Lord Chancellor, and Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

326. **WILLIAM IV.**, 1830–1837.—Third son of George III.; married in 1818 to **Adelaide Louisa of Saxe Meiningen**. He was a kind and homely monarch, cordial in his manner, and fond of his people. His disposition was better than his abilities.

327. **The Reform Bill**, 1832.—By this many of the smaller and less important boroughs were disfranchised, and the number of members returned in others reduced. The memberships thus obtained were transferred to the more populous counties, and various new boroughs were created. The franchise was extended so as to take in the middle class generally. Votes were given to ten-pound householders in the towns; and in the counties to tenants paying a rent of 50*l.* per annum, or owning land worth 10*l.* per annum. Measures of a similar kind were passed for Scotland and Ireland.

328. **Abolition of Slavery**, 1833.—This had been set on foot by Mr. Wilberforce as early as 1787. He died while the measure was in progress. Though no less than 20,000,000*l.* was voted as compensation to the slave-owners, they were still considerable losers—(1) because their slaves cost them more than they received; and (2) because the freed slaves would not work so hard in a free state as they had been obliged to do in a state of slavery.

329. **The New Poor Law**, 1834.—The Local Boards were placed under Government control. The system of indiscriminate out-door relief was done away with, and unions were formed in which able-bodied paupers could earn support by labour.

330. **The Quadruple Alliance**, 1834.—Between England, France, Spain, and Portugal, to secure the crowns of Spain and Portugal to Isabella II. and Maria, against Dons Carlos and Miguel, who respectively laid claim to them.

331. **VICTORIA**, 1837.—Daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III.; married, in 1840, to her cousin, **Prince Albert, of Saxe Coburg Gotha**, styled, in 1857, the ‘Prince Consort.’

332. **Rebellion in Canada**, 1837.—The intention of the insurgents was to found a republic. The attempt was, however, speedily suppressed. It resulted in the union of Upper and Lower Canada, and the change of the seat of government from Quebec to Montreal (1841).

333. **The Chartists**, 1838.—A body of the working classes, who obtained their name from the ‘People’s Charter,’ which they demanded—the six points of which were, (1) Universal Suffrage, (2) *Vote by Ballot*, (3) *Annual Parliaments*, (4) *Payment of Representa-*

tives, (5) Abolition of the Members' Property Qualification, and (6) 'Equal Electoral Districts.' They committed many outrages. In 1841 a procession of some 20,000 carried a monster petition to Parliament and serious disturbances were anticipated. The preventive measures of the Government were, however, equal to the occasion, and no riot of any importance ensued.

334. First Chinese War, 1840 (June).—In endeavouring to put a stop to the pernicious trade in opium, the Chinese Government seized and imprisoned certain British opium-traders. A war followed, which was concluded by the **Peace of Nankin** (1842). Under this the Chinese ceded Hong Kong to England, paid 4,000,000 to the expenses of the war, and opened Canton, Amoy, Ningpo, Foochoo, and Shanghai to the trade of all nations.

335. Treaty of Constantinople, 1840 (July 15).—Between England, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, to protect the Sultan, against whom the Viceroy of Egypt had revolted. Beyrout and Acre were in consequence bombarded by Admiral Stopford and Sir C. Napier. This had the effect of obliging the Viceroy to evacuate Syria, which he had overrun.

336. The Afghan War, 1841–1842.—The English had interfered in the affairs of Cabul. The Afghans accordingly rebelled and massacred the English at Khyber Pass, but a successful avenging expedition was despatched against them under Nott and Pollock. Several of the native states afterwards took up arms.

337. War with Scinde, 1843.—The forces of the Ameer of Scinde were defeated by Sir Charles Napier at **Meeanee and Dubba**, and Scinde was annexed to the Indian Empire.

338. The First Sikh War, 1845–1846.—The Sikhs first attacked the British at Ferozepore. After the battle of **Moodkee** in which Sir Robert Sale received wounds of which he afterwards died, the English won the battles of **Ferozeshah, Aliwal, and Soobraon**, the last named terminating the war.

339. Repeal of the Corn Laws, 1846. The restrictions placed on the importation of foreign corn pressed heavily on the country. Great efforts were made for some years by the '**Anti-Corn-Law League**,' an association which was formed at Manchester in 1838 to procure its free importation. In 1846, by the conversion of Sir Robert Peel to the cause, its efforts were crowned with success and a small fixed duty was substituted for the sliding scale then in force.

340. Repeal of Sugar Duties and Navigation Laws, 1846 and 1849. By the former measure, passed by Lord J. Russell, foreign

slave-grown sugar was imported into England at the same duty as from British colonies. By the latter, foreign vessels were admitted to all the privileges of British ships.

341. The Second Sikh War, 1848-1849.—In 1848 war broke out again, and battles at **Kennyree, Ramnugger, and Chilian-wallah** were followed by the complete defeat of the Sikhs by Lord Gough at **Goojerat** (1849). The Punjaub was, in consequence, annexed to the Indian Empire. Rangoon and Pegu were gained in a subsequent **War with Burmah** in 1851-3; and in 1856 the kingdom of Oude was added to the British territories.

342. The Crimean War, 1854-1856.—Arose from the designs of Russia upon Turkey, for whose protection England and France, in 1854, entered into an offensive and defensive alliance. They were joined in 1855 by Sardinia. The English forces were successively commanded by Lord Raglan, General Simpson, and General Codrington; the French by Marshal St. Arnaud, General Canrobert, and General Pelissier. The Russians were defeated at **Alma, Balaklava, and Inkerman**; but these advantages were counterbalanced by the destruction of the Turkish fleet at Sinope, and the capitulation of Kars, long held gallantly by General Williams. War was terminated by the **Taking of Sebastopol**, and the **Treaty of Paris** (1856), between Russia, and England, France, Austria, Sardinia, and Turkey. By this treaty the Danubian Principalities (Moldavia and Wallachia) were withdrawn from the protectorate of Russia; the fortifications of Sebastopol were to be demolished; and neither Russia nor Turkey permitted to maintain any ships of war on the Black Sea. In 1856 the Crimea was evacuated.

343. The Second and Third Chinese Wars, 1856-1858; 1859-1860.—Commenced by an outrage of the Chinese on the British flag. After the taking of Canton peace was concluded by the **Treaty of Tien-sin** (1858). As this was not observed, the war recommenced in 1859. The Taku Forts were captured, Peking was invested and surrendered, and hostilities ceased with the ratification of the above-mentioned treaty, and the **Convention of Peking** (1860).

344. The Indian Mutiny, 1856-1858.—In 1856 broke out the terrible mutiny of the Sepoys, arising from various causes, but chiefly from the fancied disregard by the English of their religious ideas. Brutal massacres of the Europeans took place in 1857 at **Delhi, Meerut, Lucknow, and Cawnpore**. By the vigour of **Havelock, Outram, Lawrence**, and other officers, made illustrious by their exertions in this unhappy outbreak, it was at last suppressed in 1858.

The Government of India then passed from the East India Company into the hands of the Crown.

345. The Volunteer Movement, 1859.—Originated in the fears of French invasion, resulting from the anti-English feeling in France, after Orsini's attempt to assassinate Napoleon III. Corps of rifle volunteers were rapidly formed in all parts of the country. The movement has endured to the present time (1870). In 1860 the force numbered 190,000 men, and an annual camp is still formed at Wimbledon.

346. Death of Prince Albert, 1861.—Married to the Queen in 1840, Prince Albert was deservedly respected by the people of his adoption. At his suggestion were commenced the International Exhibitions which, since the first in 1851, have been so general.

347. The Revised Educational Code, 1861.—Established in consequence of the Report of the Commission appointed to enquire into the state of popular education. It was very ill received by the clergy and schoolmasters, and a compromise was finally made.

348. The Cotton Famine, 1861-1865.—Resulted from the reduction in the supply of cotton, caused by the American Civil War (1861-5). Great distress ensued in the Lancashire district, and thousands of operatives were thrown out of work. The liberal subscriptions which flowed in from all parts of the country tended greatly to alleviate the misery of this calamity.

349. The Fenian Brotherhood, 1863.—An association formed in America, chiefly by Irish emigrants, with the intention of revolutionising Ireland. The presumed chief, or 'head-centre,' is one James Stephens. Many of them have at different times been arrested. In 1867 they rose in Ireland, but were suppressed, and in the same year they caused great loss of life by blowing in the wall of Clerkenwell prison, with the intent of releasing prisoners. In 1866 and in the present year (1870) they made unsuccessful attempts upon Canada.

350. The Jamaica Mutiny, 1865.—An insurrection of the black population of Jamaica, who committed many atrocities. It was eventually suppressed, and some two hundred rebels were shot. The Governor of the island, General Eyre, by whose energy this was mainly effected, was recalled in 1866, upon a charge of undue severity, but the grand jury rejected the bill of indictment against him.

351. The Reform Bill, 1867.—After several attempts on the part of the Liberals and of the Conservatives, a measure of reform, on the basis of household and ten-pound suffrage, was introduced

by Mr. Disraeli and passed by both Houses. The effect was to lower the franchise considerably. In 1868 bills of a like nature were passed for Ireland and Scotland. No change was made in the number of Irish seats, but the number of English seats was decreased, and the surplus transferred to Scotland.

352. The Abyssinian Expedition, 1868.—Had its origin in the detention of certain English captives by Theodoros, Emperor of Abyssinia. An expedition under Sir Robert Napier, now Lord Napier of Magdala, was despatched to Abyssinia to enforce their release, and the campaign terminated with the **Taking of Magdala**, a strong fortress, the death of Theodoros, and the liberation of his prisoners.

353. Disestablishment and Disendowment of the Irish Church, 1869.—The state of the Irish Church had long engaged attention. A Bill for disestablishing and disendowing it was introduced by Mr. Gladstone, and ultimately passed during his premiership, which commenced in 1868.

354. The Landlord and Tenant (Ireland) Act, 1870.—This was an Act passed with a view to establish more harmonious relations between landlord and tenant in Ireland, by regulating the occupation and ownership of land.

355. The Elementary Education Act, 1870.—An important measure providing for public elementary education in England and Wales.

356. The Supplemental Treaties, 1870.—These were concluded by Great Britain with France and Prussia respectively, at the commencement of the Franco-Prussian War of 1870, in order to record her determination to maintain the independence and neutrality of Belgium as prescribed in a previous treaty (1839), between Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia, and Belgium. If Belgium is invaded by either France or Prussia during the war, Great Britain is bound to assist the non-invading belligerent in expelling the invader.

A LIST OF THE SOVEREIGNS OF EUROPE IN THE
YEAR 1870.

Country	Name	Title
Austria . . .	Francis Joseph I. . .	Emperor.
Belgium . . .	Leopold II. . .	King.
Denmark . . .	Christian IX. . .	"
France* . . .	Napoleon III. . .	Emperor.
Great Britain . .	Victoria . . .	Queen.
Greece . . .	George I. . .	King.
Italy . . .	Victor Emmanuel II.	"
Netherlands . .	William III. . .	"
Papal States† . .	Pius IX. . .	Pope.
Portugal . . .	Luis I. . .	King.
Prussia . . .	William I. . .	"
Russia . . .	Alexander II. . .	Emperor.
Spain‡ . . .	—	—
Sweden and Norway	Charles XV. . .	King.
Turkey . . .	Abdul-Azis . .	Sultan.

* Napoleon III., until recently Emperor of France, lost his throne in 1870, after the capitulation of Sedan, and became the prisoner of the King of Prussia.

† The Papal States are now, October 1870, incorporated with the kingdom of Italy, and the Pope has practically no temporal sovereignty.

‡ Spain is at present under a provisional government, and the throne is heretofore vacant.

BRITAIN
DURING THE
ROMAN PERIOD
B.C. 55 - A.D. 426

OCEANUS

GERMANICUS

OCEANUS HIBERNICUS

BRITANNIA PRIMA

OCEANUS BRITANNICUS

Walls of Antonine

Walls of Hadrian

BRITANNIA

ICENI

SILURES

VERULAMIUM (St. Albans)

LONDINIUM (London)

EBORACUM (York)

CAERLETON (Gloucester)

DEVA (Chester)

MARIDUNUM (Gloucester)

VERULAMIUM (St. Albans)

LONDINIUM (London)

EBORACUM (York)

CAERLETON (Gloucester)

DEVA (Chester)

MARIDUNUM (Gloucester)

ICENI

SILURES

BRITANNIA PRIMA

OCEANUS BRITANNICUS

London: Lookwood & Co. Stationers' Hall Court.

THE
CIVIL SERVICE ENGLISH HISTORY.

PART SECOND.

APPENDIX I.

ENGLISH CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY.

A SKETCH OF THE PRINCIPAL EVENTS IN THE HISTORY OF THE RISE
AND PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

The British and Roman Periods.—Of the government of Britain under its aboriginal inhabitants little can be affirmed with certainty. The country, it appears, was divided into a number of petty states, having each its separate chieftain, and uniting in cases of common danger under a common ruler. Cassivelaunus, for instance, was elected to the command of the south-eastern parts of the island upon the second invasion of Julius Cæsar, B.C. 54. That the succession to the rulership of a state did not exclude females may be gathered from the fact that Prasatagus, King of the Icenii, was succeeded by his wife, Boadicea.

Great influence seems to have been exercised over both the chiefs and their subjects by the Druids, or priesthood. These were the educators of youth and the arbiters of disputes. They decided public and private causes, and pronounced sentence of excommunication upon all who refused to obey their decrees.

During the Roman period Britain was a military colony of the Roman empire, and its government was administered by Roman officers. The British government was not superseded, but to a certain extent existed along with that introduced by the conquerors, whose policy it was to adapt themselves, as far as possible, to the forms of government which prevailed in the territories they subdued.

Towards the latter part of the Roman occupation the country was included in the Prefecture of Gaul, and divided into five provinces, viz.:—1. *Britannia Prima* (south of the Thames and the Bristol Channel); 2. *Britannia Secunda* (Wales and some adjacent counties); 3. *Flavia Cæsariensis* (east of Britannia

Secunda, and bounded on the south by the Thames, and on the north by the Mersey and the Humber); 4. *Maxima Caesariensis* (between the Humber and the Mersey, and Hadrian's Wall); and 5. *Valentia* (from Hadrian's Wall to the Wall of Antoninus). A sixth province, *Vespasiana*, lying to the north of the Wall of Antoninus, is mentioned by early writers; but the district thus situated was never long under the Roman dominion.

Each of the five provinces named above had its principal town, which was the seat of government. The three first were under the rule of *Præsides* (presidents); the two last under *Consulares* (consular officers); and the whole were governed by a supreme officer styled the *Vicarius* (deputy), who resided at York, and was himself subject to the Prefect of Gaul. There were three chief military officers—the *Comes Britanniarum* (Count of the Britons), who was Commander-in-Chief of the forces; the *Dux Britanniarum* (Duke of the Britons), charged with the defence of Hadrian's Wall against the Picts and Scots; and the *Comes Littoris Saxonici* (Count of the Saxon Shore), who kept the coast from Brancaster to Pevensey against the Saxon pirates.

The towns were divided into *Municipia*, *Coloniæ*, *Civitates Latio jure donatæ*, and *Civitates Stipendiariæ*. The first and second were chiefly inhabited by Romans, the third and fourth by a mixed population. The difference between the *Municipia* and *Coloniæ* was slight: in both the inhabitants had the rights of Roman citizens, chose their own magistrates, and enacted their own laws. The *Civitates Latio jure donatæ* ranked below these; but they possessed certain privileges enjoyed by the ancient inhabitants of Latium, which raised them above the *Stipendiariæ*. The *Stipendiariæ* were the lowest of all, and the inhabitants paid tribute. For the names of the different towns, thirty-three of which have been preserved, the reader is referred to the map of Britain during the Roman period.*

The Anglo-Saxon Period.—During the period which preceded the dissolution of the Heptarchy the forms of government of England

* The Latin titles of these towns are as follows :—*Municipia* (2) : Eboracum, Verulamium. *Coloniæ* (9) : Londinium, Camalodunum, Rutuplæ, Aquæ Solis, Isca Silurum, Lindum, Deva, Glevum, and Camboricum. *Civitates Latio jure donatæ* (10) : Durnomagus or Durobrivæ, Catarractonum, Cambodunum, Coccium, Luguwallium, Theodosia (Dumbarton), Pteroton (Burgh Head, Morayshire), Victoria (Dealgin Ross, Perthshire), Corinium, and Sorbiodunum. *Stipendiariæ* (12) : Venta Belgarum, Venta Icenorum, Venta Silurum, Segontium, Maridunum, Ragæ or Ratæ, Durovernum, Durinum or Durnovaria, Isca Dumnoniorum, Bremeium, Vindonum, and Durobrivæ. The names of the supposed English equivalent towns are given on the map of Roman Britain.

were variable and uncertain. With the union of the seven kingdoms under Egbert, the Anglo-Saxon constitution may be said to have solidified. Under this the kingly dignity was elective; that is to say, the monarch was chosen by the nation. As a general rule, however, the nation elected the nearest heir, so that practically the succession was hereditary. The princes of the royal house were denominated *Athelings*.

The people were divided into three classes—the *eorls*, nobles or gentry (with whom the clergy ranked); the *ceorls*, churls or yeomen; and the *theowes*, or serfs. The executive government belonged almost entirely to the first class, which included several grades, the highest of which, the *aldormen*, came next to royalty. Towards the close of the Anglo-Saxon period the bulk of the *eorls* came gradually to be known by the name of *thanes*.

The highest tribunal was the **Witanagemot**, or **Witan** (assembly of wise men). This was convened at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, and consisted chiefly of the nobility and clergy. It was an essentially aristocratic body, in which the churls had no place. It elected the king, who presided over it, made laws, levied taxes, raised land and sea forces, and concluded treaties. Every man could petition the Witanagemot, and it was the supreme court of justice, both in civil and criminal causes.

The country was divided into counties (as at present), and these were subdivided into hundreds and tithings, the last being a union of ten families, every member of which was responsible for all the rest. This system of police was termed frankpledge, but its operation is involved in obscurity. Each of the above-named three divisions had its court of justice—viz., the *shire-mote*, or county court; the *hundred-mote*, or hundred court; and the *hall-mote*, or manor court—thus affording a graduated scale of courts from the supreme Witan downwards.

The most ordinary modes of trial were by compurgation, or wager of law, and by ordeal, or judgment of God. By the first the accused was acquitted if he produced a number of compurgators, or fellow-swearers, who deposed upon oath to their belief in his innocence. Where this method was not held to be satisfactory, recourse was had to trial by ordeal. This was of two kinds—by fire and by water. In the ordeal by fire, the accused was obliged to carry a bar of red-hot iron for a certain distance, or to walk blindfold upon red-hot ploughshares; in the ordeal by water, he was obliged to plunge his arm into boiling water, or was cast bound into a river or pond. If he sustained the first three tests without injury, or if he sank in

the last, he was acquitted; if not, he was condemned to pay the penalty of the offence. The whole of the ordeal was superintended by a priest, and it is probable that the issue lay in his hands. A third mode of trial by ordeal, the administration of the *corned*, or 'morsel of execration,' was also practised. The accused was required to swallow a piece of consecrated bread or cheese, which, if he were guilty, was expected to choke him.

The chief punishments were fines. These varied according to the magnitude of the offence. For murder there was a settled tariff determining the value of a life in each degree.

The Norman Period.—With the Norman Conquest came the system of land-tenure known as the **Feudal System**, which already prevailed on the Continent, and was finally established in England towards the close of the reign of William I. (1086). Under this the sovereign became the supreme lord of the soil, which he parcelled out in fiefs to his vassals, who, in return, engaged to supply him with military service during a given period of the year, to protect his family and person, and to aid him with their counsel. Various money payments were claimed in addition from the vassal under the heads of *aids*, *primer seisin* or first fruits, *reliefs*, and *fines for alienation*. The *wardship of minors* and the right to dispose of them in marriage also belonged to the lord of the land; and if the vassal died without heirs, or committed any crime, the land returned to the lord by *escheat*.

The immediate tenants of the crown were termed tenants *in capite*, or in chief. These tenants-in-chief again assigned their lands to inferior tenants, on terms akin to those on which they held them. William the Conqueror greatly increased the regal power under the feudal system, by requiring the oath of fealty from these inferior tenants, as well as the tenants-in-chief. As a general rule of feudalism, the vassal only took the oath to the lord from whom he held.

Conjoined to the feudal system, and to some extent dependent on it, came another importation from the Continent—the rigorous **Forest Laws** of the Norman kings. By these, to use Blackstone's words, 'the slaughter of a beast was made almost as penal as the death of a man.' Happily, at the present time only a trace of them survives in the game laws. But under the monarch who 'loved the tall deer as if he were their father,' whole districts were depopulated and despoiled to make him parks and chases.

To the Witanagemot of the Saxon period corresponded, in a

measure, under the Normans, the **Aula**, or **Curia Regis** (King's Court), by which the king was assisted in making laws. Like the Saxon great council, it met at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, and was composed chiefly of the clergy and the tenants-in-chief. It was not, like the Witanagemot, the supreme tribunal; but a committee of it, presided over by an officer styled the Grand Justiciary, and resembling our Lord Chief Justice, attended the king on all occasions to hear cases of appeal from the inferior courts. This committee gradually gave rise to our present courts of Exchequer, Common Pleas, Queen's Bench, and Chancery. Another alteration, conceded by the Conqueror to the Popish clergy, was the removal to a separate tribunal of spiritual cases, which in Anglo-Saxon times had been tried with the lay cases in the county courts. These last, with the hundred and manor courts, still continued to exist during the Norman Period.

The Normans added another form of trial to those in use among the Saxons. This was the wager of battle. It resembled the duel of modern times, and the result was held to establish the guilt or innocence of the person accused.

The House of Plantagenet.*—The power of the Pope in England had greatly increased during the Norman period, and by the commencement of the Plantagenet era the Church had usurped various important privileges. It claimed, in addition, the right of punishing the crimes of its members, but exercised it with so much indulgence that their lawlessness became notorious, and no less than 100 murders were committed by the clergy alone in the first ten years of Henry II.'s reign.

Henry II. was the first king who opposed these ecclesiastical encroachments, and his opposition was stimulated by the difficulties placed in his way by Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury. Notwithstanding these drawbacks, however, he succeeded in passing the famous **Constitutions of Clarendon** (1164). Among other things, it was enacted by these, that clergy accused of any crime should be tried by civil judges; that no chief tenant of the crown should be excommunicated, or his lands put under interdict; that bishops should be regarded as barons, and be subjected to the burthens belonging to that rank; that no persons of any rank (and clergymen especially) should leave the realm without the royal licence; that appeals from the spiritual courts should be

* In which the Houses of York and Lancaster are included.

carried to the king, and not to the Pope; and that the clergy should no longer pretend to the right of enforcing debts contracted by oaths or promise. To these Constitutions Becket gave a reluctant assent; and, although they were not always carried out in succeeding reigns, they must, nevertheless, be regarded as the first important measure of ecclesiastical reform.

The next notable act of Henry was the division of the country into six circuits, and the appointment of justices *in eyre* or *in itinere*, who travelled them for the purpose of trying cases (1176). This step was well timed. The before-mentioned committee of the Curia Regis was difficult of access and unsatisfactory in operation; the county courts of the preceding periods were growing obsolete; and **Trial by Jury**, to which the system of visiting judges gave great facilities, was about to supersede the Norman custom of ordeal by battle.

It will not be necessary to trace the origin of Trial by Jury in Anglo-Saxon times. The 'Assize of novel disseisin' in Henry's reign was the first real approach to the now existing form. By this a suitor in civil cases who was unwilling to risk the ordeal by battle might refer his case to the verdict of a jury, who based their decision, not on the evidence of witnesses, but on their personal knowledge of the facts. It was not until the reign of Edward III. that the witness and the jurymen became distinct, and even long after this time the jurors were permitted to be individually acquainted with the circumstances of the case.

We now come to the most important constitutional event of the Plantagenet era—the signing of Magna Charta (1215), which was finally brought about, under Henry's second son, John, by the increasing rigour of the forest laws and feudal tenures, and by the extortions and oppressions of John himself. The barons, under the generalship of Stephen Langton, the Primate, and William, Earl of Pembroke (names which should be memorable in English mouths), obliged John to sign a charter at Runnymede, which is regarded as the bulwark of English liberties. By the chief provisions of this, (1) no scutage or aid could be imposed but by the common council of the kingdom; (2) common pleas were not to follow the court, but to be held in some certain place; (3) no freeman could be apprehended, imprisoned, disseised of his freehold, outlawed, exiled, or sentenced, except by the lawful judgment of his peers, or the law of the land; (4) justice or right could neither be sold, delayed, nor denied to any man; (5) all freemen might quit or return to the realm at pleasure; (6) no freeman could be fined excessively; and

(7) no peasant or villein could be deprived of his implements of husbandry.

The first of these clauses established the principle that parliament, and not the king alone, has the right to tax the people; the second removed the inconveniences to which suitors were subjected from the migratory character of the chief court; and the others established the liberty of the subject and his right to his personal property.

Mention has already been made of the severities of the Norman forest laws. By the **Charter of the Forests**, granted about the same time as the Great Charter, these were somewhat mitigated. Until then, although several charters appear to have been issued to modify them in previous reigns, nothing had ever been effectually done in this direction.

King John did not intend to observe Magna Charta, in spite of his having signed it. The violations of its provisions by him, and his successor, Henry III., led to the rebellion of Simon de Montfort, and the consequent formation of the first **House of Commons** (1265).

After the defeat of Henry III. at the battle of Lewes, De Montfort, to ingratiate himself with the people, summoned burgesses to sit in the great council of the nation. His writs ordered the sheriffs to send two knights from each shire, and 'two discreet, loyal, and honest men' to represent certain cities and boroughs. From this dates our present Lower House, and from this time the power of Parliament steadily rose to become virtually the greatest power in the realm. We find that on the occasion of a **Confirmation of the Charters** (1297) by Edward I., the House of Commons, which had hitherto allowed the king's arbitrary levies, or tallages, to pass unquestioned, had grown so independent as to require the addition to it of the clause 'De Tallagio non concedendo,' which gave security to private property, and ratified the principle that taxes cannot be levied by the king alone. At the end of the reign of Edward III. the House of Commons had established on a firm footing 'three essential principles of our government: the illegality of raising money without consent; the necessity that the two houses should concur for any alterations in the law; and, lastly, the right of the Commons to enquire into public abuses, and to impeach public counsellors.'*

The reign of Henry III. witnessed the transformation of the relics of the old committee of the *Curia Regis* into the afterwards so im-

* Hallam, *Middle Ages*, vol. iii.

portant **Privy Council**. Its duties at this time were, in the main, confined to advising the king on subjects referred to him, advising persons who petitioned the king, and drawing up orders for the Commons in cases where an Act of Parliament was not required.

It remains to notice a few of the more important statutes passed in the latter half of the Plantagenet era. Of those affecting the clergy the chief were the **Statute of Mortmain** (1279), by which no land or tenement could be transferred to them without the king's consent; and the '**Statutes of Provisors**' (1353) and **Præmunire** (1392), which prohibited presentations by the Pope to vacant benefices, and restricted the power of Papal process in England. The **Statute of Treason** (1352) made it High Treason to compass the death of the king, to make war against him, or to aid his enemies. Of the remainder, the **Statute of Acton Burnel** (1283) enabled traders to recover debts more readily; the **Statute of Wales** (1284) incorporated that country with England, although its complete subjection to English law did not take place till the reign of Henry VIII.; the **Statute de Donis** (1285) created estates tail; and the **Statute 'Quia Emptores'** (1290) removed restraints upon the sale of land by freemen.

The constitution made little progress during the period which followed the death of Richard II. 'From this time to that of Henry VII.,' says Blackstone, 'the civil wars and disputed titles to the crown gave no leisure for further juridical improvement—"*nam silent leges inter arma*."* The Houses of York and Lancaster may therefore be classed with the House of Plantagenet, to which, indeed, they of right belong, and we may at once pass to the Tudor period, and the reformation of religion.

The Tudor Period.—From a constitutional point of view, the reign of the first of the Tudors is unproductive. The character of Henry VII. is impressed upon the statute book, which scarcely contains a law that did not serve to gratify his avarice. Usurping the parliamentary privilege of taxation, for this end he once more succeeded in exacting the forced loans, or Benevolences, which Edward IV. had made intolerable, and which Richard III. had wisely abolished; and he revived, with new powers of extortion, the half-forgotten **Star Chamber** of Edward III., which, before his accession, had happily fallen into disuse. Many circumstances secured his actions from opposition. The Wars of the Roses had exhausted the country and decimated the nobility, hitherto the

* *Commentaries*, book v. chap. xxxiii.

natural counterpoise of royalty; the Commons were not as yet powerful enough to control the monarch; and peace at any price was desired by the great body of the community. This state of affairs was favourable to the unexampled exercise of the royal prerogative which is characteristic of the Tudors, and which, pushed to the limits of the national endurance under the House of Stuart, terminated in the revolution of 1688.

In the hands of Henry's imperious son and successor the usurpations of the crown gained wider ground. The system of illegal taxation by benevolences was continued; the protection against arbitrary imprisonment guaranteed to the subject by Magna Charta was supremely disregarded; and, in defiance of the legislative powers of parliament, the royal proclamations assumed the proportions of laws. A subservient parliament readily lent its aid to the king's inclinations, and many oppressive statutes were passed, a great part of which were, fortunately, speedily repealed under Edward VI. To the reign of Henry VIII., however, we owe the **Statute of Wills** (1541), by which persons were enabled to devise their houses and lands as they pleased; the **Statute of Uses** (1537), which made it illegal to leave land to chapels and churches for more than twenty years; and the completed incorporation of Wales with England.

But the conspicuous feature of Henry VIII.'s reign is the rise and development of the English Reformation. The abuses of the Papacy, and an extended knowledge of the Bible, had prepared the way for the introduction into this country of the great movement which was agitating Europe. England's separation from Rome was accomplished in 1534, when, upon the opposition of Pope Clement VI. to the divorce of Catherine of Arragon, Henry threw off the Papal yoke, and was constituted by parliament 'Supreme Head of the English Church.' It was made treasonable to deny his supremacy, and statutes were passed prohibiting appeals to Rome, and abolishing the tribute of 'Peter's Pence' (1536-9). The dissolution of the religious houses, long the asylums of indolence, ignorance, and immorality, followed closely after, and the country speedily swarmed with vagrant outcasts from the numerous monasteries, whose immense revenues were appropriated by the king, and squandered on the impoverished nobility to secure their affection and adherence. As a concession to the popular discontent at this step, Henry passed the '**Statute of Six Articles**' (1539), which, for a time, greatly retarded the Reformers' cause. By it persons denying the doctrine of *transubstantiation*—the distinctive tenet of Romanism—communion

in one kind, private masses, celibacy of the clergy, auricular confession and vows of chastity, were burnt at the stake.

Edward VI. repealed this sanguinary statute, and during his reign the Reformation may be said to have been completed. A new Prayer Book and Communion Service were composed, a set of Homilies was prepared to be read from the pulpit, the marriage of priests was permitted, and all images were removed from churches.

For a brief period Popery prevailed under Mary. But upon the accession of her sister Elizabeth Protestantism was restored. An **'Act of Uniformity'** (1559) made the use of Edward's liturgy compulsory; and an **'Act of Supremacy'** (1559) obliged all clergymen holding livings, and all laymen holding offices under the Crown, to take an oath denying the authority of the Pope in England. The queen was, moreover, empowered to appoint commissioners to reform, repress, and correct all errors, heresies, and schisms. This gave rise to the afterwards notorious **'High Commission.'** A **Poor Law Act** (1601) was framed, to meet the increased indigence resulting from the breaking up of the monasteries, and the consequent withdrawal of their alms. In every parish overseers were appointed to raise sums for the maintenance of paupers who could not work, and to find employment for those who could.

The blots upon this otherwise illustrious reign are the increased power of the already notorious Star Chamber, the establishment of the Court of High Commission, and the abuse of the regal privilege of granting **Monopolies**, or patents for the exclusive sale of various commodities. The royal prerogative also was still 'too large to be endured in a land of liberty;' yet it must in justice be allowed that if Elizabeth inherited the arbitrary traditions of her family, she generally exercised her power with a feminine tact that divested it of half its oppressiveness. And all her tact was needed. There were signs of a growing spirit of resistance in the Commons of her time which augured ill for her successors.

The Stuart Period.—Without the power or popularity of his predecessor, James I. at once pushed the exercise of the prerogative, and the assertion of 'the divine right of kings,' to a height which no English king had before attained. We may pass rapidly over his reign, occupied mainly by the record of his ill-judged and undignified contentions with the rising disaffection of the parliament and the people, to trace the rapid growth and issue of the struggle in the reign of Charles I.

This monarch continued the policy of his father. The tyrannical

jurisdiction of the Star Chamber and the Court of High Commission soon rose to its zenith ; and three years after his accession his arbitrary expedients to obtain the money for his wars which the Commons refused to grant him, resulted in the 'second Great Charter of English liberties,' the '**Petition of Right**' (1628). He had already hastily assembled and as hastily dissolved two unmanageable parliaments. A third made the granting of subsidies conditional upon his signature of the above-mentioned petition. It required (1) that no loans, taxes, or other charges should be levied without consent of parliament ; (2) that no one should be imprisoned for refusing to pay such charges ; (3) that the billeting of soldiers upon citizens should be discontinued ; and (4) that no commissions should be issued for the execution of martial law.

The lesson of this petition was lost upon Charles. During the following year he dissolved parliament, and then reigned without one. In defiance of precedent, he seized the taxes of tonnage and poundage (levied on every tun of wine and pound of goods imported or exported) ; in defiance of the law, he continued to grant the monopolies which James and Elizabeth had abolished ; he increased the popular irritation by extending the tax of **Ship-money**, formerly levied in seaports alone, to inland towns ; and, finally, he created the body of opponents who first attacked his crown by the short-sighted attempt to force the English liturgy upon the Scotch, which produced the **Covenant**.

Twelve years elapsed without any parliament. After summoning and dissolving one in the commencement of 1640, Charles assembled another in the close of the same year—the famous **Long Parliament**. One of the first acts of this was to ensure, by the **Triennial Act** (1641) that three years should not pass without the assembling of a parliament. It asserted the right of parliament to have a voice in the taxing of the people, and prohibited the assessment of Ship-money ; it abolished the Star Chamber and High Commission ; it impeached the king's chief advisers, Strafford and the Primate Laud ; and drew up a **Grand Remonstrance** (1641), rehearsing the offences of the king from the date of his accession.

With a legislature of such a temper, a rupture became imminent. The arrest of the Five Members by Charles brought matters to a crisis, and a civil war commenced, the narrative of which does not belong to this place.

Nothing constitutionally noteworthy occurred during the Commonwealth, if we except the **Navigation Act** (1651), aimed at the carrying trade of the Dutch, by which no foreign commodities

could be imported into this country except in English ships or the ships of the country whence they came. In the reign of Charles II. this was re-enacted, as the Acts of the Commonwealth had no legal force.

To the reign of Charles II. belongs a measure almost equal in importance to the three great Charters — the famous **Habeas Corpus Act** of 1679. By this the liberty of the subject was effectually protected against the frequent violations of those portions of Magna Charta and the Petition of Right which provided against arbitrary imprisonments. It enacted that (1) prisoners should be produced on trial; (2) that they should not, when once delivered, be recommitted for the same offence; (3) that they should be tried at latest the second term after commitment; and (4) that they should not be imprisoned beyond seas.

But the majority of the other statutes of this reign are directed against Roman Catholics and Nonconformists. The **Act of Uniformity** (1662), rather than comply with which some two thousand incumbents resigned their livings, obliged all clergymen to receive episcopal ordination; to assent to the Book of Common Prayer, and take the oath of canonical obedience; to renounce the Solemn League and Covenant; and to renounce the taking up of arms against the king. The **Conventicle Acts** (1664–70) prohibited the assembling of Nonconformists for religious purposes, and imposed penalties upon their preachers; and the **Five Mile Act** (1665) forbade Nonconformist teachers to come within five miles of any corporate town, or any place where they had formerly preached, except when travelling. The **Test Act** (1673), levelled at the Papists, made the abjuration of transubstantiation, the oath of allegiance and supremacy, and the taking of the Sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England the conditions of holding office; and the **Papists Disabling Bill** (1678) excluded Catholics from parliament. These, with the **Corporation Act** of 1661, which obliged all officers of corporate bodies to receive the Eucharist and take the oath of non-resistance to kingly authority, are the chief statutes of Charles II.'s reign.

During the short reign of James II. a Roman Catholic monarch again governed the country. His **Declaration of Indulgence** (1687) benefited Dissenters as well as Catholics, by permitting them the exercise of their religion. But its object was the promotion of Roman Catholicism, which no king could now impose upon England. An invitation to assume the crown, coupled with precautionary conditions, was sent to William of Orange, who ascended the throne by the Revolution of 1688.

The conditions above referred to were afterwards embodied in the third Great Charter of English liberties, the **Bill of Rights** (1689). It declared that, without the consent of parliament, the suspending of laws, the levying of taxes, and the maintenance of a standing army in time of peace were illegal.* It insisted upon the right of subjects to petition the king, upon free elections of members of parliament, freedom of debate, and frequent sessions, and upon the impartial impanelment and returning of jurors. Catholics were excluded from the succession, and, in the event of William and Mary leaving no issue, the crown was to descend to Mary's sister Anne.

Before the close of William's reign it became necessary, by the death of Anne's only surviving child, the Duke of Gloucester, to make further provision for the succession at her death. An **Act of Settlement** (1701) was accordingly passed to exclude the Catholic Stuart line from the throne, settling the crown upon the Electress Sophia of Hanover, the Protestant granddaughter of James I. (through his daughter Elizabeth), who had married the Elector Palatine. Several important additions to the Bill of Rights were included in this Act. The commissions of judges, for example, were to run during good behaviour, but they might be removed upon an address of both Houses.

The other statutes of the reign of William and Mary are the **Toleration Act** (1689), which relieved Dissenters who took the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and who made a declaration against transubstantiation, from all penal statutes affecting the exercise of their religion; the **Mutiny Act** (1689), which provided for the discipline, regulation, and payment of the army;* and the **Triennial Act** (1694), afterwards superseded by the Septennial Act of George I., which limited the duration of parliament to three years.

Anne's reign is memorable for the **Union of England with Scotland** (1707), under the name of Great Britain. The succession was to remain vested in the House of Hanover; there was to be one parliament, to which Scotland was to send sixteen peers and forty-five commoners; both nations were to have equal freedom of trade; and the Scotch were to retain their religion and civil laws.

The House of Hanover.—After the Act of Settlement the his-

* A standing army in time of peace being illegal, the 'Mutiny Act' of William and Mary is annually re-enacted to provide for the maintenance of the Regular Forces.

tory of the English Constitution becomes less eventful. 'The battle had been fought and gained,' says Hallam,* by this the 'last great statute which restrains the power of the crown, and manifests in any conspicuous degree a jealousy of parliament in behalf of its own and its subjects' privileges.' Brief paragraphs will therefore suffice to record the chief occurrences of the Hanoverian period.

To the reign of George I. we owe the **Riot Act** of 1715, and the **Septennial Act** of the succeeding year. The former was framed to prevent the recurrence of the disturbances to which the height of party spirit frequently gave rise; and the latter, which enabled parliament to sit for seven years without dissolution, was passed by the Whig ministry in the fear that the Jacobites would come into power under the Triennial Act of William and Mary. In this reign also **Convocation** was prorogued (1717). By this step the disadvantages to parliament arising from the existence of a clerical assembly having the right of granting subsidies, enacting ecclesiastical canons, and advising in clerical matters were finally removed and done away with.

Under George II. an Act was passed to remedy the loose state of the law with regard to marriages. The grant of a licence or the publication of banns was made obligatory by the **Marriage Act** (1753), and marriages solemnised without these preliminaries were null and void.

Early in George III.'s reign an alteration was made in that provision of the Act of Settlement which referred to the commission of judges. Instead of resigning their office at the death of the sovereign, they were allowed to continue to hold it. The **Stamp Act** of 1765, which brought about the American War of Independence, and the **Royal Marriage Act** of 1771, regulating the alliances of the royal family, require no further mention here. Passing over the statutes of 1778 for the benefit of Roman Catholics, we come to a great political event, the **Union of England with Ireland** (1799), which was chiefly brought about by the Irish rebellion under Lord Edward Fitzgerald. The parliaments of the two countries were united, and it was arranged that there should be one hundred Irish members in the House of Commons, and thirty-two (i.e., twenty-eight peers and four bishops) in the House of Lords. The recognition and toleration of dissent by the law of this country, and the doctrine that in England slaves are free, were also clearly laid down about this period by decisions of Lord Mansfield. Great advances were likewise made in the for-

* *Constitutional History*, vol. III.

mation of political opinion among the people by the publication of the parliamentary debates, and the discussion, by the press generally, of contemporary politics.

The year 1828 witnessed the repeal, under the Duke of Wellington's administration, of the obnoxious Corporation and Test Acts of Charles II.'s reign. In the following year was carried Peel's **Catholic Emancipation Bill**, by which, with one or two exceptions, office generally was thrown open to Roman Catholics.

By this time the long-essayed amendment of the representative system had become urgent, and the opposition even of such men as Peel and Wellington was ineffectual to prevent the **Reform Bill** of 1832. The total number of members in the House was not increased by this measure, but several insignificant boroughs were disfranchised, and the representatives returned reduced in others. The votes thus obtained were transferred to the more populous counties, and various new boroughs were created. The franchise was extended so as to take in the middle class generally. Votes were given to £10 householders in the towns, and in the counties to tenants of land paying a rental of £50 per annum. The progress of reform was further advanced in the present reign. In 1867 a second **Reform Bill**, on the basis of household and £10 suffrage, was successfully carried. By this the franchise was considerably lowered.

In 1833, thanks to the persistent humanity of Mr. Wilberforce, the **Abolition of Slavery** in our West Indian possessions was at last accomplished. It has since ceased to exist in the United States.

The leading events of Victoria's reign remain to be enumerated. By the **Repeal of the Corn Laws** (1846), the restrictions placed upon the importation of foreign corn were finally removed. The heavy duties upon slave-grown sugars were also done away with (1846), and by the new **Navigation Laws** (1849) foreign vessels were admitted to all the privileges of British ships. The Reform Bill of 1867 has already been referred to. The **Disestablishment and Disendowment of the Irish Church** (1869), the **Irish Landlord and Tenant Act** (1870), and the **Education Act** (1870) are the chief recent measures of importance.

Present System of Government.—Great Britain is a limited hereditary monarchy—limited because the power of the sovereign is controlled by the subject, hereditary because the crown descends to the next heir. The sovereign is bound by law to profess the established religion. The executive, or acting power, is nominally

vested in the crown; the legislative power, or power of making laws, rests with the Three Estates—i.e., the Sovereign, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons. The two last constitute Parliament, the highest court of law in the land, which is assembled, adjourned, and dissolved by the sovereign alone.

The House of Lords, or Upper House, is composed of lords spiritual and temporal, or bishops and peers. Of the former there are twenty-six—i.e., two archbishops and twenty-four bishops; of the latter, 444—i.e., 400 English, 16 Scotch, and 28 Irish peers.

The House of Commons, or Lower House, consists of 658 representatives, returned by the counties, cities, boroughs, and the eight universities of the three kingdoms. In 1869 the members returned for England and Wales numbered 493; those for Scotland, 60; those for Ireland, 105.

A new law is proposed, or submitted for the consideration of parliament (subject to certain regulations termed standing orders), by means of a bill in which its scheme is embodied. If the bill is read twice in the Lower House without opposition, it is referred to a committee for consideration and criticism, after which it is read a third time. It then goes through similar stages in the Upper House; and if it survives this ordeal it is submitted to the queen for her assent before it becomes law. Thus no law can be passed in this country without the concurrence of the Sovereign, the Lords, and the Commons.

In the executive, which, as was stated above, lies nominally in the hands of the crown, the sovereign is assisted by a body of responsible advisers called the Cabinet, the members of which must belong to the Upper or Lower House, and are generally the holders of the great offices. It includes the Prime Minister or First Lord of the Treasury, the Lord Chancellor, the Lord President of the Council, the principal Secretaries of State, and other officers.

The judicial department of the government belongs to the different courts of justice. These are the House of Lords, the High Court of Chancery, and the courts of common law, i.e. Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, Exchequer, and other inferior courts. The judges of the three chief common law courts make circuits through the kingdom twice a year, to try cases by a jury of the respective counties. For this purpose England and Wales are arranged in eight circuits, six English and two Welsh. Two judges are generally sent to each of the former, and one to each of the latter. *Middlesex, being the seat of a supreme court, is not included in any circuit.*

APPENDIX II.

PRINCIPAL TREATIES.

FROM THE TREATY OF WALLINGFORD TO THE SUPPLEMENTAL
TREATIES OF 1870.

STEPHEN.

Treaty of Wallingford, 1153.—Between Stephen, and Henry, son of the Empress Maud, afterwards Henry II. Its principal stipulation was that the former should retain the crown during the rest of his life, on condition that it should, at his death, pass to the latter. Stephen died in the following year, when Henry became king.

EDWARD III.

Treaty of Bretigny, May 8, 1360.—Between England and France. King Edward resigned his claim to the crown of France, renounced his pretensions to his ancestral provinces of Normandy, Maine, Touraine, and Anjou, which had been taken by Philip II. in 1204, and received in exchange Calais, Ponthieu, Limousin, and other districts. King John of France, then a prisoner in this country, was, besides, to pay a ransom of £1,500,000. The ransom, however, was not raised, and John died in England four years later.

HENRY V.

Treaty of Troyes, May 21, 1420.—Between England and France. The chief conditions were: (1) That Henry should marry Catherine of Valois, daughter of Charles VI., the imbecile King of France; (2) that he should succeed to the crown at that monarch's death, to the exclusion of the Dauphin; and (3) be regent of the kingdom during the remainder of his lifetime. The Dauphin, nevertheless, seized the crown at his father's death.

EDWARD IV.

Treaty of Pecquigny, 1475.—Between France and England, and arising from Edward's invasion of the former country. By this treaty, Margaret of Anjou was released from confinement, and ransomed by Louis XI. of France, to whom her father, Regnier, King

of Naples, surrendered his county of Anjou for the purpose. Louis engaged to pay Edward an annual pension to withdraw his army, and the Dauphin was to marry Edward's eldest daughter, Elizabeth of York. The French king, however, violated this last provision by contracting the Dauphin to another princess, and Elizabeth afterwards became the wife of Henry VII.

HENRY VII.

Treaty of Estaples, November 3, 1492.—Terminated Henry's pretended invasion of France, after the annexation of Brittany to that kingdom by Charles VIII. The English forces were withdrawn upon payment by the French king of £149,000.

CHARLES I.

Treaty of Ripon, 1640.—Between Charles I. and the Scotch, after the hostilities arising from the attempted introduction of the English Liturgy into Scotland. A weekly sum of £5,000 was to be paid to the latter until differences were adjusted.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

Treaty of Westminster, April 5, 1654.—Concluded the first Dutch war. The Dutch agreed to acknowledge the flag of the Commonwealth, and to give no countenance to the Royalists.

CHARLES II.

Treaty of Breda, July 10, 1667.—Terminated the second Dutch war. New York was ceded to this country by Holland in exchange for Surinam. England also acquired the British Virgin Isles, New Jersey, Delaware, Antigua, and Cape Coast Castle.

The Triple Alliance, January 13, 1668.—Between England, Sweden, and Holland, to check the advances of Louis XIV. upon Flanders, in support of the pretensions made by him to the Spanish Netherlands in right of his wife, Maria Theresa of Spain. The **Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle** (1668) effected this object. Louis surrendered his claim, but obtained possession of Lille, Tournay, and other places he had taken in his campaign.

Secret Treaty of Dover, May 22, 1670.—Between Louis XIV. and Charles II. By this Louis agreed to give Charles a pension, and assist him with armed force in danger, upon the condition that Charles would aid him against Spain and Holland, and publicly profess the Roman Catholic religion at a convenient period.

Treaty of Westminster, February 9, 1674.—Terminated the

third Dutch war. The Dutch agreed to respect the English flag; to pay Charles II. £300,000; and all possessions obtained before the war were to be restored.

WILLIAM III. AND MARY.

Peace of Ryswick, September 20, 1697.—Suspended hostilities with France. Spain, Holland, and Germany were also parties to it. Louis XIV. agreed to acknowledge William III.; neither monarch was to intrigue against the other, and free commerce was to be restored.

First Partition Treaty, October 1, 1698.—Charles II., King of Spain, was supposed to be at the point of death. As he had no heirs, and the question of the succession was likely to prove troublesome, a treaty was entered into between William III. and Louis XIV. for dividing the Spanish dominions between the Dauphin of France, the Archduke Charles (afterwards Charles III. of Spain), and the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, who were all claimants of the Spanish throne. The last-named prince having died in 1699, a **Second Partition Treaty** was entered into, March 14, 1700, to divide the territories between the remaining two.

The Grand Alliance, September 7, 1701.—After the Partition Treaties, the King of Spain left his entire dominions to Philip, Duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin. This brought France to the side of Spain, caused an alliance between England, Austria, Holland, Portugal, and Savoy, to support the claim of the Archduke Charles of Austria to the Spanish throne, and was followed by the War of the Spanish Succession.

ANNE.

Treaty of Utrecht, April 11, 1713.—Concluded the War of the Spanish Succession. France acknowledged the Protestant succession of the House of Hanover; Spain was to be held by Louis' grandson (Philip V.), but France and Spain were never to be united under one sovereign. Minorca and Gibraltar were ceded to this country by Spain; Hudson's Bay Territory, St. Christopher, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland by France. The fortifications of Dunkirk were to be demolished, and England was to have the contract for supplying Spanish America with negro slaves.

GEORGE I.

The Triple or Hague Alliance, January 4, 1717.—Between England, France, and Holland, to prevent the succession of Philip V. to the crown of France in violation of the Treaty of Utrecht.

The Quadruple Alliance, August 2, 1718.—Between Great Britain, France, Austria, and Holland, to preserve the peace of Europe and uphold the Treaty of Utrecht.

Treaty of Hanover, September 3, 1725.—Between England, France, Prussia, Holland, Denmark, and Sweden, to counteract the effect of a treaty entered into at Vienna between Austria and Spain, involving the restitution of Gibraltar.

GEORGE II.

Treaty of Seville, November 9, 1729.—Between England, France, and Spain. The Assiento trade was confirmed to the South Sea Company, and the succession of the Infant Don Carlos to Parma and Tuscany agreed to by Great Britain.

Treaty of Vienna, March 16, 1731.—Between England, Holland, and Austria. By this England agreed to support the Pragmatic Sanction of 1713, by which Charles VI. of Austria had secured the succession of his hereditary dominions to his daughter, *Maria Theresa*.

Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, October 7, 1748.—Between England, Holland and Austria, and France and Spain. Terminated the War of the Austrian Succession, in which, in pursuance of the Treaty of Vienna, England had espoused the cause of *Maria Theresa* against the Elector of Bavaria and Frederick of Prussia. Its chief features were the mutual restoration of conquests; the fortifications of Dunkirk were to be demolished; the King of Prussia was to retain Silesia; and the Pragmatic Sanction was to be observed.

The Kloster Seven Convention, September 8, 1757.—By this Hanover was surrendered to the French, in consequence of the defeat of the Duke of Cumberland by the Duc de Richelieu at Hastenburg.

GEORGE III.

Treaty of Paris or Fontainebleau, February 10, 1763.—Between England, France, and Spain. Terminated the Seven Years' War. By it England acquired Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Cape Breton, Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, and Senegal. France was, however, to have the right of fishery on the Newfoundland banks, and to hold the islands of Miquelon and St. Pierre as fishing stations. Belle Isle, which had been taken from the French in 1761, was given in exchange for Minorca, which they had taken from us in 1756; and Florida was ceded by Spain for the Savannah.

Treaties of Versailles, September 3, 1783.—Between England, the United States, France, Spain, and Holland. Terminated the War of American Independence. England recognised the United States of America. France received St. Lucia, Tobago, Goree, Chandernagore, and Pondicherry, in exchange for Dominica, Grenada, St. Vincent, and other West India islands. The dismantling of the Dunkirk fortifications was given up. Spain received the Floridas and Minorca, and Holland all her possessions except Negapatam. This treaty was highly unpopular, chiefly on account of the cession of Chandernagore and Pondicherry.

Treaty of Amiens, March 25, 1802.—Between England, France, Spain, and Holland. Terminated the First War of the French Revolution. England restored all her colonial conquests to France, Spain, and Holland, retaining only Ceylon and Trinidad. Malta was to be restored to the Knights of St. John, and Egypt to the Porte.

Secret Treaty of Tilsit, July 7, 1807.—By this treaty, Russia, France, and Prussia agreed to close their ports against England. To prevent the Danish fleet falling into the hands of the French, an English armament was sent to take charge of it. The refusal of the Danes to this arrangement led to the bombardment of Copenhagen.

Treaty of Paris, May 30, 1814.—Between France and England, Austria, Russia, and Prussia. Terminated the Second War of the French Revolution. France was reduced to the boundaries of 1792. The Bourbons were restored, and Napoleon, retaining his title of emperor, retired to the island of Elba. England acquired British Guiana, Cape Colony, the Mauritius, the Seychelles, Rodriguez, Heligoland, Tobago, Malta, and St. Lucia.

Treaty of Ghent, December 24, 1814.—Effected a peace between England and the United States. The suppression of the slave trade was to be effected, if possible.

Treaty of Paris, November 20, 1815.—France was to be reduced to the limits of 1790; she was to pay the allies the expenses of the war, and compensate the different powers for their respective losses. England acquired the Ionian Islands.

WILLIAM IV.

Treaty of London, November 15, 1831.—Between Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia and Russia, and Belgium. Followed the separation of Belgium from the Netherlands. By it the extent of the Belgian territory was defined. The country was declared to be an independent and perpetually neutral state, bound to

observe such neutrality towards all other states; and the execution of the various articles of the treaty was guaranteed by the five first-mentioned powers.

The Quadruple Alliance, April 27, 1834.—Between England, France, Spain, and Portugal, to secure the crowns of Spain and Portugal to Isabella II. and Maria, against Don Carlos and Miguel, who respectively laid claim to them.

VICTORIA.

Treaties of London, April 19, 1839.—Between Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia and Russia, and Belgium and the Netherlands respectively. By these the Treaty of 1831 was maintained, and the neutrality of Belgium re-asserted.

Treaty of Constantinople, July 15, 1840.—Between England, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, to protect the Sultan, against whom the Viceroy of Egypt had revolted.

Treaty of Nankin, August 29, 1842.—Terminated the war with China. England was to have Hong Kong; Canton, Amoy, Foochoofoo, Shanghai, and Ningpo were to be opened to British trade; and the Chinese were to pay the expenses of the war.

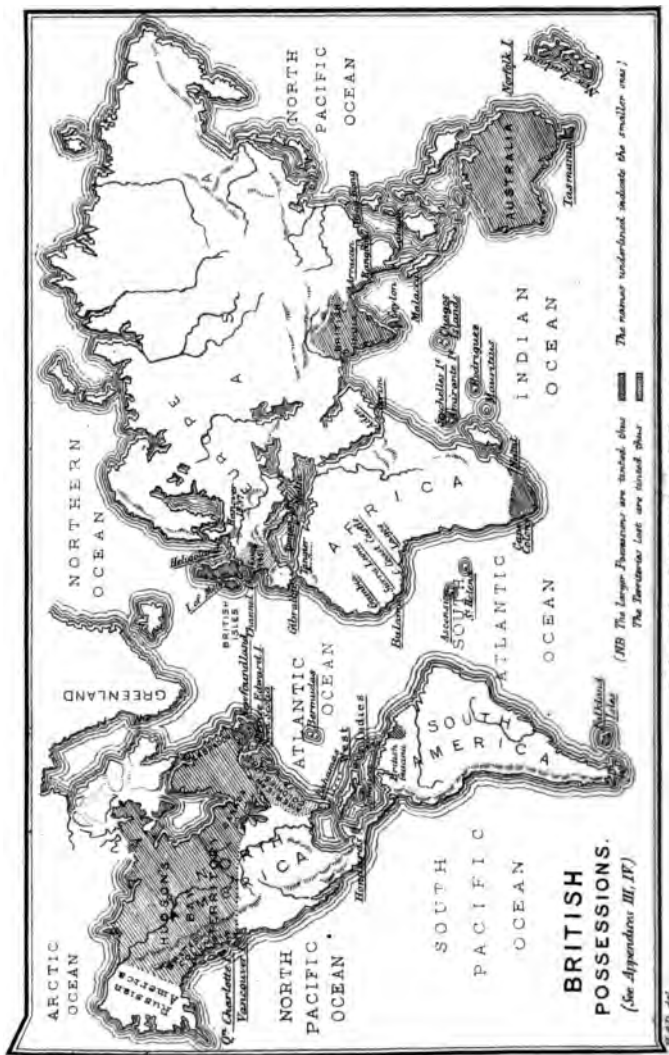
Treaty of Paris, March 30, 1856.—Terminated the war in the Crimea. The fortifications of Sebastopol were to be dismantled; the Danubian Principalities (Moldavia and Wallachia) ceased to be under the power of Russia, and only a few ships of war were to be kept in the Black Sea.*

Treaty of Tien-sin, June 26, 1858.—Terminated a second war with China. Other ports were opened, Christianity was to be tolerated, and the Chinese were to pay the expenses of the war.

Treaty of Peking, October 24, 1860.—The Chinese violated the foregoing treaty, and war broke out again. By the Treaty of Peking, England received Kow-loon, and further payments were to be made by the Chinese.

The Supplemental Treaties, August 1870.—Between Great Britain, and France, and Prussia respectively. Intended to re-assert the obligations of Great Britain as regards Belgium under the Treaties of 1831 and 1839, and to secure the neutrality of that country against the hazards of the Franco-Prussian war (1870). By them Great Britain is bound, if Belgium is invaded by either belligerent, at once to aid the other in expelling the invader.

* Russia has announced (November 1870) that she no longer holds herself bound by the stipulations of this treaty with respect to the number of her ships in the Black Sea.



APPENDIX III.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS (A).

A LIST OF THE PRESENT POSSESSIONS (1870) OF GREAT BRITAIN IN EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, AMERICA, AND OCEANIA, WITH THE DATES OF THEIR ACQUIREMENT.

POSSESSIONS IN EUROPE.

Isle of Man.—An island in the Irish Sea. After passing through various hands, it fell to the Duke of Athol in 1735. The sovereignty was purchased from him in 1765 by the British Government, and the remaining privileges in 1826.

Holigoland.—A small island situate off the mouths of the Elbe and Weser rivers; taken from the Danes in 1807, during the second French Revolutionary war. It was confirmed to England by the treaty of Paris, in 1814.

The Channel Islands.—A group off the north-west coast of France. The chief islands are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark. The Channel Isles have been held by England since 1066. They formed part of the dukedom of Normandy, ceded by Charles the Simple to Rollo the first Duke, and inherited by William the Conqueror from his father, Robert the Devil.

Gibraltar.—A fortress at the southern extremity of Spain. Taken by Admiral Sir G. Rooke in 1704, during the War of the Spanish Succession, and ceded to England in 1713, at the Peace of Utrecht.

Malta.—The largest of a group of three islands (the others being Gozo and Comino) situated in the Mediterranean, 58m. south of Sicily. Malta was taken by the French in 1798 from the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, to whom it had been granted by the Emperor Charles V. early in the sixteenth century. The French, in their turn, surrendered it to Great Britain in 1800. At the Peace of Amiens (1802) it was to have been restored to the Order of St. John; but by the Treaty of Paris (1814) it was retained by this country.

POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

British India.—Is divided into the three Presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay. Beside these, there are a number of dependent or protected states. The seat of government is at Calcutta, in the Bengal Presidency. Up to the Indian Mutiny of 1857 the government of India was in the hands of the East India Company, which had been established in 1600; but after the suppression of that outbreak it passed to the Crown. The chief territories of the three Presidencies were acquired as follows:—

BENGAL PRESIDENCY.—Calcutta, in 1698; Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, in 1765; Assam, in 1826, after the Burmese war; the Punjab, in 1849, after the second Sikh war; Nagpore, in 1853, at the death of the Rajah; Oude, in 1856.

MADRAS PRESIDENCY.—Circars, in 1766–78; Malabar, in 1792; Coimbatore and Canara, in 1799; Carnatic, in 1802.

BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.—Island of Bombay, given by Spain to Charles II. in 1662 as the marriage portion of Catherine of Braganza and granted by him to the East India Company in 1668; island of Salsette, added to it in 1776; Khandeish, in 1818; Concan, in 1818–20; Scinde, in 1843, after the war with the Ameers.

To these must be added, in Further India, or Indo-China:—The Straits Settlements, i.e. Penang, acquired in 1786 from the Rajah of Kedah; Wellesley Province, added to Penang in 1800; Singapore taken possession of by Sir Stamford Raffles in 1819; Malacca, finally ceded by the Dutch in 1826; Aracan, Martaban, and Tenasserim, in 1826, after the first war with Burmah; Rangoon and Pegu, in 1852–3, during the second war with Burmah.

Ceylon.—A large island to the south of Hindostan. It was taken from the Dutch in 1795–6, during the first French Revolutionary war, and confirmed to Great Britain by the Treaty of Amiens, in 1802. Ceylon was made a colony in 1801, but the whole island did not come under British rule until 1815.

Aden.—A coal depôt in the south-west extremity of Arabia, taken from the Arabs in 1839, in consequence of an outrage committed by them upon an English ship which was wrecked there.

Hong Kong.—An island in the Gulf of Canton. It was taken by the British in 1841, during the first Chinese war, and ceded to England in perpetuity by the Treaty of Nankin, 1842.

POSSESSIONS IN AFRICA.

Cape Colony.—An extensive territory in South Africa, lying between the South Atlantic Ocean, the Orange River, and Caffraria Proper. It was visited by the English as early as 1620, but was colonised by the Dutch in 1652, from whom it was taken in 1795, during the first French Revolutionary war. By the Treaty of Amiens it was restored to the Dutch; but it was retaken in 1806, during the second French war, and finally became a British possession in 1814, at the Peace of Paris.

British Caffraria.—A district on the east frontier of the Cape, forming a kind of border country between the independent tribes of Caffraria Proper and the inhabitants of the Cape. It came under British sovereignty in 1853, after the Caffre war, and was afterwards incorporated with Cape Colony.

Natal.—A district to the eastward of the Cape, and separated from it by Caffraria Proper. It was settled in by Dutch Boers from the Cape in 1837, taken from them in 1840, proclaimed a British colony in 1843, annexed to the Cape in 1845, and made a separate colony in 1856.

Sierra Leone.—A district in West Africa, ceded, in 1787, to Britain by the native chiefs, and colonised by 400 free negroes sent from London, and some sixty white soldiers who had served in the war of American Independence.

Cape Coast Castle.—An English settlement in West Africa, taken by the British from the Dutch in 1661. The British factories were destroyed by the Dutch admiral De Ruyter in 1665, but by the Treaty of Breda (1667) it was ceded to Great Britain in perpetuity. It is subject to the Government of Sierra Leone.

The Gambia.—A district in West Africa, acquired by settlement in 1631. It was made a separate colony in 1843, but is now subject to the Government of Sierra Leone.

Lagos.—A district in West Africa, ceded, in 1861, to Britain by the native chiefs. It is subject to the Government of Sierra Leone.

Bulama.—An island dependency of Sierra Leone, situated at the entrance of the rivers Jeba and Rio Grande. It was ceded to the British Government in 1792.

Perim.—An island at the entrance of the Red Sea. It was occupied by the English in 1857 for the accommodation of the Red Sea steamers.

Mauritius, or Isle of France.—An island to the east of

Madagascar. Occupied by the Dutch in 1598, and afterwards by the French in 1715. In the revolution of 1789 the island adopted revolutionary opinions, and it became a nest of pirates, who did great damage to our Indian trade. In 1810, during the second French Revolutionary war, it was taken by an expedition despatched against it, and made a British possession by the Treaty of Paris in 1814.

The Seychelles Islands.—Lie to the north-east of Madagascar. They are dependencies of the Mauritius, and were acquired with it under the Treaty of Paris in 1814.

Rodriguez.—An island to the east of the Mauritius, of which it forms a dependency. It was acquired under the Treaty of Paris in 1814.

The Chagos Archipelago.—A group of islands in the Indian Ocean to the south of the Maldives. They form a dependency of the Mauritius.

St. Helena.—An island in the South Atlantic Ocean, held by the English and Dutch alternately until 1673, when the English took it. Charles II. gave the East India Company a charter for its possession. From 1815 to 1821 it was occupied by Napoleon. It is now a Crown colony, having been ceded to the British Government by the East India Company in 1833.

Ascension.—An island in the South Atlantic Ocean, to the north-west of St. Helena, taken possession of by the English in 1816, and used chiefly as a naval station.

POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA.

Canada.—Canada was formerly composed of Upper and Lower Canada, which were united into one colony after the Canadian Rebellion of 1837. By the 'British North American Act, 1867,' Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were added to this, and the whole received the name of the Dominion of Canada.

The territory of Canada Proper (i.e., Upper and Lower) was first taken possession of by the French, who founded the settlement of Quebec in 1608. Quebec was captured by General Wolfe in 1759, during the Seven Years' War, and the whole territory passed to Great Britain at the Treaty of Paris in 1763.

Nova Scotia was held by French and English settlers alternately up to the Treaty of Breda (1667), when, being in the possession of the latter, it was ceded to the former. At the Peace of Utrecht (1713) it was ceded by France to England. It was again ceded by France to England, in 1763, at the close of the Seven

Years' War. Cape Breton Island, also ceded to England in 1763, is included in Nova Scotia.

New Brunswick was also ceded by France to England in 1763. Up to the year 1785 it formed part of Nova Scotia.

Hudson's Bay Territory, or Rupert's Land.—In 1670 a charter was granted by Charles II. to a company called the Hudson's Bay Company, established for the purpose of procuring furs in the vast district lying to the north of the United States of America. In 1821 the Hudson's Bay Company was amalgamated with a rival association, styled the 'North-West Company,' and established by the Canadians. The licence of the company was revoked in 1859, and Hudson's Bay Territory is now annexed to the Dominion of Canada.

British Columbia.—A district to the west of the Hudson's Bay Territory. Up to 1858 it formed part of that territory; but after the discovery of gold in its rivers it was made a separate colony.

Vancouver Island.—An island to the south-west of British Columbia, ceded to Great Britain by the United States, under the Oregon Treaty in 1846. In 1849 it was granted to the Hudson's Bay Company, but in 1859 it was made into a separate colony, and in 1866 united to British Columbia.

Queen Charlotte Islands.—North of Vancouver Island. They form part of the colony of British Columbia.

Labrador.—A district to the east of Hudson's Bay. It is a Moravian missionary station, and extensive fisheries are carried on along its coasts by the Americans and Canadians.

Newfoundland.—A large island in the Atlantic Ocean to the south-east of Labrador, famous for its fisheries. Previous to 1713 the right to these had been contested by English and French fishermen, who were continually involved in disputes. At the Treaty of Utrecht, however, the French resigned all claim to the island, receiving only the little islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon to dry and cure their fish upon. The cession was ratified by the Treaty of Paris in 1763.

Anticosti.—A long island at the mouth of the river St. Lawrence. It is included in the colony of Newfoundland.

Prince Edward Island, formerly St. John.—An island to the north of Nova Scotia. It was taken from the French in the Seven Years' War (1758), and ceded to this country at the Peace of Paris in 1763. It was then incorporated with Nova Scotia, but was afterwards made a separate colony.

Bermudas, or Somers' Islands.—A group in the Atlantic Ocean, to the east of the United States. It was colonised by Sir George Somers in 1609, subsequently by charters given by King James I. to the Virginia Company in 1612, and the Bermuda Company in 1616. This last was revoked in 1684-5, when the island became a Crown colony.

The West Indies.—This name is given to a number of islands lying between the Atlantic Ocean, the Caribbean Sea, and the Gulf of Mexico. During the successive wars of this country with France, Spain, Holland, and the United States of America, those of them which now belong to Britain often changed hands, and reference to them will be found in most of our treaties with the above-named countries as far back as the treaty of Breda. Jamaica, the largest, was taken by Penn and Venables in the Spanish war of 1655, and has belonged to Britain ever since. Barbadoes was colonised in 1627, and became a Crown colony at the Restoration. Antigua and the British Virgin Islands—i.e., Tortola, Anegada, and Virgin Gorda—were finally acquired by this country under the Treaty of Breda in 1667; the Bahamas, Grenada, St. Kitts, Nevis, Montserrat, St. Vincent, and Dominica under the Treaty of Versailles in 1783; Trinidad under the Treaty of Amiens in 1802; and St. Lucia and Tobago under the Treaty of Paris in 1814.

British Honduras, or Belize.—A district in Central America, subordinate to Jamaica. It was early settled in by English from Jamaica and elsewhere, but they were frequently disturbed by the Spaniards until 1783, when, by the Treaty of Versailles, the right of the English to cut the logwood, with which it abounds, was guaranteed by Charles III. of Spain.

British Guiana.—A district in the north-east of South America, composed of the three provinces of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. After being held at different times by the French, English, and Dutch, it was surrendered to Great Britain in 1803, and was confirmed to them in 1814 by the Treaty of Paris.

Falkland Islands.—A group in the South Atlantic. Held by France and Spain successively. Spain ceded them to this country in 1771, but they were not then colonised. In 1833 the British Government took possession of them for the protection of the whale fishery, and they now form a British colony.

POSSESSIONS IN OCEANIA.

Australia.—The largest island in the world. It was known to the Dutch and Portuguese as early as 1606. Dampier explored the

coasts in 1684-90, and Cook visited it in 1770. The first English settlement was made by Captain Arthur Phillip, who founded the colony of New South Wales, in 1788. It now comprises the colonies or provinces of—1. New South Wales; 2. Western Australia; 3. South Australia; 4. Victoria; and 5. Queensland. Western Australia became a separate colony in 1829, South Australia in 1836, Victoria in 1851, and Queensland in 1859. The last-named, under the titles of Port Phillip district and Moreton Bay district, at first formed part of New South Wales.

Tasmania.—An island at the south-east extremity of Australia. It was first colonised in 1803 as a penal settlement, and was made a dependency of New South Wales. Criminals ceased, however, to be transported to it in 1853.

New Zealand consists of three islands:—1. North Island, or New Ulster; 2. Middle Island, or New Munster; and 3. South Island, or New Leinster. It was colonised in 1839, and became a Crown colony in 1840.

Worfolk Island lies in the Pacific Ocean, 900 miles to the east of Tasmania. It was colonised in 1788, and used as a penal settlement. It is now the residence of the descendants of the 'Bounty' mutineers, who removed to it from Pitcairn's Island.

Labuan.—An island on the north-west coast of Borneo. Ceded to Great Britain in 1846 by the Sultan of Bruni (Borneo Proper, or N.W. Borneo). A colonial government was established there in 1848.

APPENDIX IV.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS (B).

A TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL GAINS AND LOSSES OF GREAT BRITAIN FROM WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR TO VICTORIA. THE LOSSES ARE PRINTED IN ITALICS.

Possession	When gained or lost	How gained or lost
NORMANDY AND THE CHANNEL ISLES	1066	Inherited by William the Conqueror from his father, Robert the Devil.
MAINE	1069	Seized by William the Conqueror.
ANJOU AND TOURAINE	1151	Inherited by Henry II. from his father, Geoffrey, Count of Anjou.
GUIENNE, POITOU, SAINTONGE, AUVERGNE, PERIGORD, ANGOUMOIS, AND LIMOUSIN	1151	Acquired by Henry II., with his wife, Eleanor of Guienne.
NANTES (COUNTY OF)	1158	Acquired by Henry II. at the death of his brother, Geoffrey.
BRITTANY	1171	Acquired by Henry II., at the death of Conan IV., Duke of Brittany, whose daughter, Constance, had married Henry's third son, Geoffrey.
IRELAND	1171	Acquired by conquest. (<i>See p. 17, s. 45.</i>)
ROXBURGH AND BERWICK	1175	Ceded by William the Lion, King of Scotland. (<i>See p. 18, s. 47.</i>)
<i>Roxburgh and Berwick</i>	1189	<i>Sold to Scotland by Richard I. (See p. 18, s. 47.)</i>
<i>Normandy, Anjou, Maine, and Touraine</i>	1204	<i>Taken by Philip II. of France.</i>
WALES	1283	Conquered by Edward I. (<i>See p. 22, s. 67.</i>)

Possession	When gained or lost	How gained or lost
S	1347	Taken by Edward III. (<i>See</i> p. 24, s. 84.)
DU, SAINTONGE, L'AGE- 3, PERIGORD, LIMOU- QUERCY, ROUERQUE NGOUMOIS, GUIGNES, AIS (<i>see ante</i>), MON- UIL, PONTHEU, ETC.	1360	Sovereignty retained by Ed- ward III., under the Treaty of Bretigny. (<i>See</i> p. 24, s. 88.)
CE	1420	Acquired by Henry V. under the Treaty of Troyes. (<i>See</i> p. 29, s. 102.)
æ (<i>Calais excepted</i>) .	1451	<i>By this date the whole of France had been regained by the successes of Charles VII. of France, and Joan of Arc. (See p. 30, s. 105.)</i>
S	1558	Taken by the Duke of Guise. (<i>See</i> p. 40, s. 151.)
LAND	1603	Acquired at the accession of James I. of England, and VI. of Scotland.
INIA *	1607	Colonised by charter from James I.
UDAS	1609	Colonised by Sir Geo. Somers.
ACHUSETTS	1620	Settled in by the Plymouth Company.
HAMPSHIRE	1623	Ditto.
ADOES	1627	Colonised by charter of Charles I.
IA	1631	Acquired by Settlement.
FLAND	1633	Colonised by charter of Charles I.
ECOTICUT	1635-8	Settled in from Massachusetts and England.
ICA	1655	Taken from the Dutch during the Commonwealth. (<i>See</i> p. 49, s. 195.)
DE ISLAND	1636-8	Settled from Massachusetts.
IERK	1658	Taken by Cromwell. (<i>See</i> p. 49, s. 195.)
AY AND TANGIER	1662	Acquired by Charles II. as the dowry of Catherine of Braganza.

*is title was given by Raleigh, in honour of Elizabeth, to the whole of
they afterwards divided into the thirteen colonies which declared their
ence in 1776. That portion of it now known by this name was not
until the succeeding reign.*

Possession	When gained or lost	How gained or lost
<i>Dunkirk</i>	1664	<i>Sold to France by Charles II.</i>
BRITISH VIRGIN ISLES (TORTOLA, ANEGADA, AND VIRGIN GORDA), NEW YORK, NEW JERSEY, DELAWARE, ANTIGUA, AND CAPE COAST CASTLE	1667	Acquired under the Treaty of Breda. (<i>See p. 51, s. 202.</i>)
CAROLINA	{ 1663 1670	Colonised by charters of Charles II.
HUDSON'S BAY TERRITORY (INCLUDING BRITISH COLUMBIA)	1670	Colonised by charter of Charles II. to the Hudson's Bay Company.
ST. HELENA	1673	Acquired by the East India Company under charter of Charles II.
PENNSYLVANIA	1682	Settled in by Penn.
<i>Tangier</i>	1683	<i>Abandoned by the English.</i>
CALCUTTA	1698	Purchased by the East India Company.
GIBRALTAR AND MINORCA .	1713	Acquired under the Treaty of Utrecht. (<i>See p. 56, s. 247.</i>)
HANOVER (ELECTORATE OF)	1714	United to Great Britain at the accession of George I.
GEORGIA	1732	Colonised by charter of George II.
CANADA, NOVA SCOTIA, NEW BRUNSWICK, CAPE BRETON ISLAND, NEWFOUNDLAND, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND, AND SENEGAL	1763	Finally acquired under the Treaty of Paris.* (<i>See p. 61, s. 270.</i>)
FALKLAND ISLES	1771	Ceded by Spain.
THE ISLE OF MAN	1764	Purchased from the Duke of Athol.
BENGAL, BAHAR, AND ORISSA	1765	Acquired by the East India Company.
<i>The American Colonies, Florida, Goree, Minorca, Chandernagore, and Pondicherry</i>	1783	<i>Lost under the Treaty of Versailles.</i> (<i>See p. 62, s. 279.</i>)
BAHAMAS: GRENADA, NEVIS, ST. KITT'S, MONTSERRAT, ST. VINCENT, DOMINICA, AND HONDURAS (right to cut wood in)	1783	Finally acquired under the Treaty of Versailles.* (<i>See p. 62, s. 279.</i>)

* These colonies frequently changed hands. They appear here under the date of the treaty by which they were finally acquired by Great Britain.

Possession	When gained or lost	How gained or lost
PENANG	1786	Acquired by the East India Company.
SIERRA LEONE	1787	Purchased and colonised.
AUSTRALIA	1788	Colonised by Captain Phillip.
NORFOLK ISLAND	1788	Colonised as a penal settlement.
BULAMA	1792	Ceded to the British Government by the West African chiefs.
WELLESLEY PROVINCE	1800	Added to Penang by Treaty.
CEYLON AND TRINIDAD	1802	Finally acquired under the Treaty of Amiens. (<i>See p. 64, s. 294.</i>)
TASMANIA	1803	Colonised as a penal settlement.
BRITISH GUIANA, CAPE COLONY, MAURITIUS, THE SEYCHELLES, RODRIGUEZ, HELIGOLAND, MALTA, TOMBAGO, AND ST. LUCIA	1814	Finally acquired under the Treaty of Paris.* (<i>See p. 93.</i>)
ASCENSION	1815	Taken possession of by the English during Bonaparte's confinement at St. Helena.
THE IONIAN ISLES	1815	Acquired under the Treaty of Paris. (<i>See p. 93.</i>)
ASSAM, ARACAN, MARTABAN, TENASSERIM, AND MALACCA	1826	Acquired by the East India Company after the war with Burmah. (<i>See p. 66, s. 323.</i>)
Hanover	1837	<i>Hanover had become a kingdom in 1814, with succession in the male line. At Queen Victoria's accession it consequently lapsed to Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, brother of William IV.</i>
NEW ZEALAND	1839	Colonised.
ADEN	1839	Taken from the Arabs.
NATAL	1840	Taken from the Dutch Boers.
HONG KONG	1842	Acquired under the Treaty of Nankin. (<i>See p. 68, s. 334.</i>)
SCINDE	1843	Acquired by the East India Company after the war with the Ameers. (<i>See p. 68, s. 337.</i>)
LABUAN	1846	Ceded to Great Britain by the Sultan of Bruni.

* See note on opposite page.

Possession	When gained or lost	How gained or lost
VANCOUVER ISLAND . . .	1846	Ceded to Great Britain by the United States.
THE PUNJAUB	1849	Acquired by the East India Company after the war with the Sikhs. (<i>See p. 69, s. 341.</i>)
BRITISH CAFFRARIA . . .	1853	Formed into a province after the Caffre war.
NAGPORE	1853	Annexed to British India at the death of the Rajah.
RANGOON AND PEGU . . .	1852-3	Acquired by the East India Company after the war with Burmah. (<i>See p. 69, s. 341.</i>)
OUDE	1856	Annexed to British India.
PERIM	1857	Occupied by the British.
KOW-LOON	1860	Acquired under the Convention of Peking. (<i>See p. 69, s. 343.</i>)
LAGOS	1861	Ceded by the African chiefs.
<i>The Ionian Isles</i>	1864	<i>Ceded to Greece.</i>

APPENDIX V.

HISTORY OF BRITISH INDIA.

**A SUMMARY OF THE PRINCIPAL EVENTS FROM THE FOUNDATION OF
THE EAST INDIA COMPANY TO ITS DISSOLUTION IN 1858.**

Foundation of the East India Company, 1600.—The empire of British India was founded by a body of merchants, afterwards known as the East India Company. It received its charter under Queen Elizabeth in 1600, and this was frequently renewed in successive reigns. In 1698 a rival company was chartered by William III.; but the two were afterwards united. The first English factories were established in 1612 at Surat in Bombay.

Formation of Presidencies, 1652–1773. Madras was made a presidency in 1652. In 1662, Charles II. received Bombay from the Portuguese, who had held it since 1530, as the marriage portion of Catherine of Braganza. He subsequently ceded it to the East India Company, and it became a presidency in 1708. Bengal (Calcutta) became a presidency in 1701, and was made chief presidency in 1773.

French East India Company, 1664.—A French company was established in 1664. Their head-quarters were Chandernagore, on the Hooghly, and Pondicherry, on the coast of the Carnatic.

War Between the French and English, 1746–1754.—In 1746 the English town of Madras was taken by the French. It was restored to the English at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. The French, under Dupleix, however, continued to annoy the English till the taking of Arcot, 1751, and other successes of Clive, caused a temporary cessation of hostilities.

Black Hole of Calcutta, 1756.—In this year Surajah Dowlah, Nabob of Bengal, made a successful attack upon Fort William (the stronghold of Calcutta) and thrust 146 of the English into the 'Black Hole,' a loathsome dungeon, about eighteen feet square. 123 of their number died before morning. In the January following Clive regained Calcutta, and took Chandernagore from the French.

Battle of Plassey, 1757.—Bengal was wholly subjugated by

Clive's defeat of the Surajah at Plassey. In this engagement the English numbered 3,000 against 50,000.

War with the French, 1758-1760. Lally Tollandal, the French Governor-General, having captured Fort St. David, and made an unsuccessful attack on Madras in 1758, was defeated by Sir Eyre Coote at Wandewash (1760). This victory secured the Carnatic.

Wars and Treaties with the Native Chiefs, 1764-1782.—Sir Hector Monro defeated the Nabob of Oude at the battle of Buxar (1764), and in 1765 a treaty was concluded with Shah Alum, Emperor of Delhi, by which the Company obtained the sovereignty of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa. In 1767 Hyder Ali, King of Mysore, joined the Mahratta chiefs against the English and ravaged the Carnatic. Peace was concluded in 1769. In 1780 he again overran the same district, and succeeded in taking Arcot. He was repulsed by Sir E. Coote in 1781, and in 1782 (the French having become his allies) was finally overthrown. The Carnatic was saved by the battles of Porto Novo, Pollilore, and Arnee. Hyder Ali died in 1782, and was succeeded by his son Tippoo Sahib.

Mutiny of the Army, 1765.—During the period that Warren Hastings held office as first Governor-General of India several disturbances took place; and when, in 1765, Lord Clive endeavoured to establish order by forbidding the bribes which had been offered by the native princes to the Company's officers, mutiny was the result. Upon this, Lord Clive, who had secured to himself the appointment of Governor of Bengal, promptly cashiered Sir Robert Fletcher, the second in command, and sent the ringleaders to Calcutta for trial.

Famine in Bengal, 1770.—This famine is computed to have destroyed one-third of the inhabitants of Bengal.

War with the French, 1778.—During the War of American Independence Chandernagore and Pondicherry were taken, mainly through the skill of Warren Hastings. On August 4, 1778, the fortress of Gwalior was successfully stormed by Major Popham. Pondicherry and Chandernagore were restored to the French in 1783.

Pitt's Bill, 1784.—This bill greatly improved the government of India by the creation of the Board of Control at home, consisting of commissioners who were invested with supreme power over the civil and military government of the East India Company.

Wars with Tippoo Sahib, 1783-1799.—Tippoo lost no time in trying to avenge his father's defeat at Arnee. He took Bednore, and, after a temporary truce, was defeated by Lord Cornwallis at Arikera (1791). The taking of Bangalore by Lord Cornwallis

ollowed. This fortress was, however, restored to Tippoo in the following year, when a treaty of peace was entered into. In 1799, Tippoo again becoming insubordinate, his capital, Seringapatam, was successfully stormed by General Baird, who lost his life in the attempt. Tippoo also was slain, and Mysore became a dependent State.

Mahratta War, 1802-1805.—The French having aided three Mahratta chiefs, Holkar, Scindiah, and the Rajah of Berar, in rebelling against their sovereign the Peiswah, Sir A. Wellesley (afterwards the Duke of Wellington) and General Lake were despatched to subdue them. Wellesley defeated the two latter chiefs at the battles of Assaye and Argaum (1803), while General Lake took Alighur, Delhi, and Agra. In 1805 Bhurtpore was taken from Holkar, and the war ended.

War with Nepal, 1814-1816.—This war terminated by treaty in April 1815, but was renewed in 1816, when, after several defeats, the Nepaulese agreed to the treaty which had been made the year before.

Pindaree War, 1817-1818.—At the battle of Kirkee the Pindarees were defeated by the Marquis of Hastings (1817).

First Burmese War, 1824-1826.—Rangoon was taken by the English in May 1824, and the fort of Syriam in the following year. General Campbell subsequently defeated the enemy at Proome, and Lord Combermere reduced the fortress of Bhurtpore. By a treaty of peace in February 1826 the war was concluded, and Assam, Aracan, and Tenasserim added to the British possessions.

Afghan War, 1838-1842.—The British, having joined Shah Soojah against Dost Mohammed, who had made himself sovereign of the Cabul district of Afghanistan, declared war in October 1838. In August 1839 Cabul was captured under Sir John Keane, and, Shah Soojah being established on his throne, Sir W. M'Naghten and Sir A. Burnes remained in Cabul as envoys, with a number of British troops. In November and December (1841) the envoys and other officers were murdered, and the British quitted the city. In their retreat through the mountain passes nearly the whole of their number (21,000 men, women, and children) were either murdered by the Afghans or perished from fatigue. During the following year Cabul was re-conquered by Generals Pollock and Nott, and the country evacuated.

War with Scinde, 1843.—During this war Sir Charles Napier gained a victory over 30,000 of the enemy at Meanee. After the battle of Dubba (Hyderabad) the whole of Scinde was annexed to

the East India Company's dominions, and Sir Charles Napier made governor.

War in Gwalior, 1843.—The battles of Maharajpore and Punniar were fought, and the fort of Gwalior was taken on December 29, 1843.

Sikh Wars, 1845–49.—The Sikhs of the Punjaub (Lahore), having declared war in December 1845, crossed the Sutlej river, attacked the British at Ferozepore, and for some time held their ground against the Governor-General, Sir H. Hardinge, at Moodkee, where Sir Robert Sale was mortally wounded. The battles of Ferozeshah, Aliwa, and Sohraon put an end to their incursions. In February 1846 Sir Hugh (afterwards Lord) Gough occupied Lahore, and in March the treaty of Lahore was signed. In 1848 the murder of a Lieutenant Anderson led to the engagements of Kenyree and Ramnugger, and the siege of Mooltan. The victories of Chilianwallah and Goojerat, under Lord Gough, and the surrender of the Sikh army, followed. The Punjaub was formally annexed to British India in March 1849.

Second Burmese War, 1851–1853.—Rangoon was re-taken in 1852, and annexed with Pegu to the British dominions.

Annexation of Oude, 1856.—This extensive kingdom was annexed to the British territories in 1856. The ex-queen came to England to plead her cause in 1857, and died in Paris in 1858.

The Indian Mutiny, 1857–1858.—A spirit of mutiny, which had been apparent in the Bengal army as far back as 1844, had developed itself on the introduction of the Enfield rifle and its necessarily greased cartridges. The grease, which was composed of mutton fat and wax, was supposed by the malcontents to be the fat of swine and cows, and, consequently, unclean alike to the Hindoo and the Mahometan. In May several of the Sepoy regiments at Meerut were in open mutiny, and commenced by shooting Colonel Finnis and other officers. Their next step, after having joined several other insurgent Bengal regiments, was to take possession of Delhi, which, although our chief arsenal, had been left unprotected by British troops. They endeavoured to seize the magazine, but Lieutenant Willoughby, after a gallant defence, ordered it to be exploded, and died of his wounds. Mutinies at Lucknow, Benares, Allahabad, Cawnpore, Nussseerabad, and many other towns followed. The Punjaub was saved by the prompt disbanding of the native regiments. The massacre of the garrison at Cawnpore, irrespective of age and sex, by Nana Sahib, is among the most harrowing of the barbarities committed. He was defeated at Futtchpore by General

Havelock, who recovered Cawnpore (July 17).^{*} Delhi was re-taken under the command of Sir Archdale Wilson (September 20), and the king and his sons captured. On September 26 Sir Henry Havelock led the relief of Lucknow, which was besieged by the rebels, Sir James Outram and General Neill serving under him. The latter was killed in action, and Sir H. Havelock died shortly after of dysentery at Alumbagh. The enemy finally evacuated before Sir Colin Campbell in March 1858. The defeat of the natives at Jhansi by Sir Hugh Rose, and the re-taking of Gwalior, are the chief of the many other engagements.

Dissolution of the East India Company, 1858.—The Dissolution of the East India Company was the most important result of the Indian mutiny. India now owns Queen Victoria as its sovereign, and is governed by a secretary of state and a council of fifteen members.

Principal Governor-Generals of India.—Warren Hastings, 1772–1785; Lord Cornwallis, 1786–1793; Lord Mornington (Marquis Wellesley), 1798–1805; Lord Minto, 1807–1813; Lord Moira (Marquis of Hastings), 1813–1823; Lord Amherst, 1823–1828; Lord William Bentinck, 1828–1835; Lord Auckland, 1836–1842; Lord Ellenborough, 1842–1844; Lord Hardinge, 1844–1848; Lord Dalhousie, 1848–1855; Lord Canning, 1855–1858.

^{*} Nana Sahib escaped. His fate is uncertain, but he is said to have died of fever in 1858.

APPENDIX VI.

ENGLISH HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY.

A LIST OF SOME OF THE PRINCIPAL CHARACTERS IN ENGLISH HISTORY
FROM B.C. 54 TO THE PRESENT DAY.

THE ROMAN PERIOD.

Cassivelaunus, or **Caswallon**, B.C. 54.—A British chief, opposed Cæsar at his second landing, B.C. 54.

Caractacus, 1st century.—Son of Cynobelin (Shakespeare Cymbeline), and King of the Silures, a people of South Wales. He opposed the Romans under Ostorius Scapula; but, being betrayed by Cartismandua, Queen of the Brigantes (who inhabited the country between the Humber and the Tyne), he was finally made prisoner and carried to Rome. His noble bearing procured him his release by Claudius, A.D. 51.

Boadicea.—1st century.—Queen of the Iceni, who revolted against the Roman rule, and burnt London. She poisoned herself, A.D. 61, to avoid falling into the hands of the soldiers of Suetonius by whom she had been defeated.

Lucius, Prince of Britain.—2nd century.—Called *Llewellyn* (the *Great Light*). The introduction of Christianity into Britain is ascribed to him, as he is said to have written to Pope Eleutherius for Christian teachers, and to have afterwards founded the see of Llandaff in 156.

St. Alban.—3rd century.—The first Christian of Great Britain, who suffered martyrdom. He was put to death (about 286) during the Diocletian persecution, at Verulamium, now called St. Albans after him.

Carausius.—3rd century.—A Menapian, who held the office of Count of the Saxon Shore (*Comes Littoris Saxonici*). In 286 he usurped the rulership of Britain, but was killed in 293 by his minister, Allectus.

THE SAXON PERIOD.

King Arthur.—6th century.—Is supposed to have flourished at the time of the Saxon invasion, and to have been killed in Cornwall in 542 by his nephew Mordred. He opposed the invaders, whom he 'in twelve great battles ruining overthrew.' His traditional nobility of character, his 'round table' of forty knights, his court at Caerlyon-upon-Usk, and his burial in Avalon form the canvas upon which the Laureate has woven his 'Idylls of the King' (*Flos Regum Arthurus*).

St. Augustine, *d.* 605.—First Archbishop of Canterbury. At the request of Pope Gregory I. he undertook a mission to England in 596, and converted numbers of Anglo-Saxons. The British bishops, however, steadily opposed him. This Augustine must not be confounded with the Bishop of Hippo (354–430), who wrote the 'Confessions.'

St. Dunstan, 925–988.—Abbot of Glastonbury, and Archbishop of Canterbury. He did much to extend the Papal power in England, and is generally held to have first promoted the celibacy of the priesthood. He is accused of great cruelty to Elgiva, wife of Edwy, who is said to have been branded in the face and afterwards hamstrung by his partisans, in the course of a quarrel which arose between the king and the clergy, and terminated with Edwy's death.

Godwin, *d.* 1053.—Earl of Kent in the time of Edward the Confessor, who had married his daughter, Editha, and father of Harold II. The Goodwin Sands derive their name from this powerful nobleman, of whose estate they once formed part.

Stigand, *d.* 1070.—Archbishop of Canterbury.

WILLIAM I.

Lanfranc, 1005–1089.—Archbishop of Canterbury.

Edgar Atheling, *d.* 1120.—Heir to the throne. He was the grandson of Edmund Ironside, and lineal descendant of Alfred the Great. He died an old man, in the reign of Henry I., who had granted him a small pension.

Hereward the Saxon, 1072. (*See* p. 10, s. 35.)

WILLIAM II.

Anselm, 1033–1109.—A famous churchman and metaphysician, made Archbishop of Canterbury by William Rufus, with whom

however, he disagreed, and consequently left the country. Henry I. restored him to the primacy, but they afterwards quarrelled respecting investitures.

HENRY I.

Maud, niece of Edgar Atheling, d. 1118. (*See* p. 13, s. 39, and *note*.)

Robert, Duke of Normandy, 1060-1134. (*See* p. 13, ss. 38, 39.)

STEPHEN.

Matilda of Anjou, 1102-1165.—Daughter of Henry I., and styled the 'Empress Maud.' Married (1) Henry V., Emperor of Germany; (2) Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou. (*See* pp. 13, 14, ss. 39, 42.)

HENRY II.

Nicholas Breakspear, 1100-1159.—The only Englishman that was ever made Pope. He bore the title of Adrian IV., and gave Henry II. a bull to conquer Ireland, on condition that he would hold it as a fief of the Church.

Thomas à Becket, 1119-1170.—Archbishop of Canterbury. (*See* p. 17, s. 46.)

Strongbow, d. 1176.—Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke. Conquered Ireland, of which he was made seneschal by Henry II. (*See* p. 17, s. 45.)

RICHARD I.

Blondel.—The minstrel of tradition who discovered King Richard's prison in the Tyrol. The story has been traced to a French thirteenth-century romance.

JOHN.

Prince Arthur, 1187-1202.—Son of Geoffrey, Duke of Brittany, John's elder brother; and heir to the crown. (*See* p. 19, s. 53.)

Stephen Langton, d. 1228.—A cardinal—an Englishman by birth—named by Pope Innocent III. to the see of Canterbury in opposition to King John. He incited the barons to procure the signing of Magna Charta.

Robert Fitzwalter.—General chief of the barons who signed the Charter, and styled 'Marshal of the Army of God and the Holy Church.'

HENRY III.

Ham, Earl of Pembroke, d. 1218.—Aided Langton in getting John to sign Magna Charta. He was Protector of England at the commencement of the reign of Henry III., and defeated Louis of France at the second battle of Lincoln in 1217.

Mert de Burgh, d. 1243.—Earl of Kent. (*See* p. 20, s. 57.)

Simon de Montfort, 1206–1265.—Earl of Leicester, and stepson-in-law of the king, having married his sister, Eleanor. He led a rebellion, and defeated Henry at the battle of Lewes, where the king and his eldest son, Prince Edward, were taken prisoners. He was afterwards defeated and killed at Evesham by the royalists under Prince Edward, who had escaped. Simon de Montfort is regarded as the founder of the House of Commons.

Robin Hood, 13th century.—An outlaw of Sherwood Forest, in Nottinghamshire. Scott ('Ivanhoe') places him in the reign of Henry III.

EDWARD I.

Llewellyn, 1224–1282.—Prince of Wales, killed at the battle of Mynydd y Mynyddog, when the conquest of Wales was completed.

William Wallace, 1270–1305.—A famous Scotch patriot. He defeated the forces of Edward I. at the battle of Cambuskeneth (Stirling); but, losing that of Falkirk (1298), was ultimately sold into the king's hands by his friend Sir John Monteith, being convicted on a charge of treason, was hanged, drawn, and quartered.

John Balliol, 1259–1314.—Declared King of Scotland by Edward I. (*See* p. 22, s. 69.) He revolted, was defeated at Dunbar, and lost the crown, and died abroad.

EDWARD II.

Hugh Gaveston, d. 1312.—A Gascon. One of the unworthy favourites of Edward II. He was executed by the barons in 1312.

Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, 1275–1322.—Rebelled against Edward II. He was defeated at the battle of Boroughbridge, and was executed.

Thomas de Despencer, d. 1326.—Another of the king's favourites; executed by the barons in 1326.

Robert Bruce, 1274–1329.—Grandson of one of the competitors for the crown of Scotland, which, by the arbitrament of Edward I., had fallen to John Balliol. At Balliol's death, Bruce

rebelled against the English supremacy, and, though for a time kept in check by the power of Edward, at last obtained the freedom of his country at the battle of Bannockburn, and was crowned King of Scotland under the title of Robert I.

Roger Mortimer, First Earl of March, 1287-1330.—The *Ægysthus* of 'the she-wolf of France,' Isabella, Edward's queen. He dethroned the unhappy king, and caused him to be barbarously murdered at Berkeley Castle, in Gloucestershire. In his turn, he was surprised by Edward III., and hanged at Tyburn.

EDWARD III.

Edward the Black Prince, 1330-1376.—Son of Edward III., and father of Richard II. Won the battles of Cressy, Poitiers, and Najara in Spain. He was called the 'Black Prince' from the colour of the armour he wore at Cressy. His fame is clouded by his butchery of the inhabitants of Limoges, who had revolted against him.

John Wycliffe, 1324-1384.—An English divine and early Reformer, whose followers were called Wycliffites or Lollards. Their doctrines were nearly those of the subsequent Reformation. Wycliffe made a translation of the Bible, *circa* 1380.

John of Gaunt, 1340-1399.—Fourth son of Edward III., and protector of Wycliffe. By his first wife, Blanche, Duchess of Lancaster, he was the father of Henry IV., the first of the House of Lancaster; by his second wife, Catherine Swineford, whose issue was legitimated by Richard III., he was the great-grandfather of Margaret Beaufort, mother of Henry VII., the first of the Tudors.

RICHARD II.

Wat Tyler, d. 1381.—The name assumed by the leader of an insurrection in Essex at the commencement of this reign, who was killed in 1381 by Sir William Walworth, Lord Mayor of London, for his insolent bearing at a meeting between the king and the rioters in Smithfield.

Henry Bolingbroke, 1366-1413.—Duke of Hereford, son of John of Gaunt, and afterwards Henry IV.

HENRY IV.

Hotspur, 1364-1403.—Sir Henry Percy, son of the first Earl of Northumberland; fought at Otterbourne and Homildon Hill; killed at the battle of Shrewsbury in 1403.

Owen Glendower, 1349-1415.—A Welsh chieftain, great

n of Llewellyn, the last prince of Wales. Conspired with
ies against Henry IV.

und Mortimer, Earl of March, 1392-1424.—Heir to
ne. (*See* p. 26, s. 95.)

Richard Whittington.—An opulent merchant and citizen
on, who was Lord Mayor in 1397, 1406, and 1419.

HENRY V.

John Oldecastle, Lord Cobham, 1360-1417.—A Wy-
nd soldier, who was burnt at the stake for heresy in St.
Fields.

HENRY VI.

of Arc, Maid of Orleans, 1412-1431. (*See* p. 30,

, Duke of Bedford, 1389-1435.—Third son of Henry IV.,
de Regent of France at the death of Henry V. Won the
f Verneuil, 1424.

phrey, Duke of Gloucester, 1447.—Fourth son of
[V.; accused of treason, and afterwards murdered.

: Cade, d. 1450.—An Irishman, who, under the name of John
er, raised a Yorkist rebellion. He ultimately became a
, and was killed by a gentleman of Sussex named Iden.
30, s. 106.)

! Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, 1373-1453.—A famous
under Bedford in the French war. He afterwards became
stice of Ireland, and was killed at the battle of Chastillon,

n Tudor, d. 1461.—A Welsh gentleman, who married
ie of Valois, the widow of Henry V. His son, Edmund
married Margaret Beaufort, and was the father of Henry
le fought on the Lancastrian side at Mortimer's Cross, and
eaded after the battle.

EDWARD IV.

ard Neville, Earl of Warwick, 1420-1471.—Surnamed
'g-maker,' because he dethroned Henry VI. and Edward IV.
killed at the battle of Barnet. His daughter, Anne Neville,
Richard III.

lam Caxton, 1412-1491.—A citizen of London, who first
d printing in this country. His earliest issue is believed to
n a translation from the French, entitled 'The Game and
the Chesse.'

RICHARD III.

Henry Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, d. 1483.—Beheaded by Richard III.

HENRY VII.

Sir James Tyrrel.—Murderer of Edward V. and his brother in the Tower.

Lambert Simnel.—An impostor who personated Edward, Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence, and was defeated at Stoke in 1487. (*See p. 35, s. 126.*)

Perkin Warbeck, d. 1499.—Another impostor, hung at Tyburn in 1499, who pretended to be the Richard, Duke of York, murdered by Tyrrel in the Tower. (*See p. 36, s. 128.*)

Sebastian Cabot, 1477–1557.—A Venetian, who had settled in Bristol. He made a voyage westward under Henry VII., discovering Newfoundland and other places.

HENRY VIII.

Thomas Wolsey, 1471–1530.—The reputed son of a butcher at Ipswich, who rose to be sole adviser of Henry VIII., Lord Chancellor, and Archbishop of York. At the death of Adrian VI. he tried to be Pope. He opposed Henry's divorce from Catherine of Arragon, and was disgraced in consequence. He was afterwards reinstated in his see of York; but being summoned to London on a charge of high treason, contrived by his enemies at court, he died on the road at Leicester Abbey. 'Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my grey hairs,' were his words a little before his death.

Sir Thomas More, 1480–1535.—Lord High Chancellor. He was beheaded for denying the royal supremacy and the legality of the marriage with Anne Boleyn. He was the author of a politico-philosophical work called 'Utopia; or, The Happy Republic.'

William Tyndale, 1477–1536.—A Reformer who translated the Bible, and was burnt at Antwerp in 1536.

Thomas Cromwell, 1490–1540.—Succeeded Wolsey as minister, and was beheaded for recommending Ann of Cleves to Henry as his wife.

EDWARD VI.

Thomas, Lord Seymour, d. 1549.—Brother of Jane Seymour and Lord High Admiral. He married Catherine Parr, widow of Henry VIII., and at her death paid his addresses to the Princess

Elizabeth. He was executed in 1549 for plotting against his brother, the Duke of Somerset.

William Kett, *d.* 1549.—A tanner, who raised a rebellion in Norfolk. He was defeated and hanged.

Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset, *d.* 1552.—Brother of Jane Seymour, and Protector of England. Executed for plotting against the Duke of Northumberland.

MARY I.

John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, 1502–1553.—Father of Lord Guildford Dudley, executed as a traitor for promoting the succession of Lady Jane Grey. (*See* p. 40, s. 149.)

Sir Thomas Wyatt, 1520–1554.—Headed a formidable Protestant insurrection in favour of Lady Jane Grey, and was beheaded.

Lady Jane Grey, 1537–1554.—Beheaded with her husband in 1554. (*See* p. 39, s. 146.)

Hugh Latimer, 1472–1555. **Nicholas Ridley**, 1500–1555.—Bishops of Worcester and London. Reformers, burned at the stake as heretics.

Stephen Gardiner, 1483–1555. Bishop of Winchester. **Edmund Bonner**, 1500–1569. Bishop of London.—Chief instruments of Mary's persecutions of the Protestants.

Thomas Cranmer, 1489–1556.—Archbishop of Canterbury under Henry VIII., whose divorce from Catherine of Arragon he pronounced. Under Edward VI. he assisted in framing the present Liturgy, and in Mary's reign he was burned at the stake for heresy.

Reginald, Cardinal Pole, 1500–1558.—Papal legate. He succeeded Cranmer as Archbishop of Canterbury.

ELIZABETH.

David Rizzio, 1540–1566. A musician and favourite of Mary, Queen of Scots, murdered by Darnley and his adherents.

Henry, Lord Darnley, 1541–1567.—Second husband and cousin of Mary, Queen of Scots, being a grandson of Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. Murdered in 1567.

Thomas Howard, Duke of Norfolk, 1536–1572.—(*See* p. 41, s. 154.)

John Knox, 1505–1572.—The eloquent, enthusiastic, and fearless leader of the Scotch Reformers.

James, Earl of Bothwell, *d.* 1576.—Third husband of Mary, Queen of Scots, and believed to have been concerned in Darnley's

death. After the battle of Carbery Hill he fled to Denmark, where he died insane about 1576.

Anthony Babington, 1586.—(*See* p. 41, s. 155.)

Sir Philip Sidney, 1554–1586.—Soldier, courtier, and poet. Author of a prose romance called ‘Arcadia.’ He was killed at Zutphen.

Mary, Queen of Scots, 1542–1587.—Married (1) Francis II. of France; (2) Henry, Lord Darnley; (3) James, Earl of Bothwell. Executed in 1587. (*See* p. 41, s. 156.)

Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, 1532–1588.—An unworthy favourite of Elizabeth, who is said to have murdered his wife, Amy Robsart, in the hope of marrying the queen.

Sir Francis Walsingham, 1536–1590.—A statesman, diplomatist, and favourite of Elizabeth. He was Secretary of State in 1573.

Sir Francis Drake, 1545–1596.—A famous captain, who served against the Armada, and circumnavigated the globe.

Cecil, Lord Burleigh, 1520–1598.—A wise minister, and Elizabeth’s chief adviser. He took a distinguished part in the establishment of the reformed religion. His son, Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury (1550–1612), was minister under Elizabeth and James I., after his father.

Robert, Earl of Essex, 1567–1601.—Queen Elizabeth’s favourite. (*See* p. 41, s. 160.)

Charles Howard, Lord Effingham, 1536–1624.—The Catholic Lord High Admiral of England. Commanded the English fleet against the Armada.

JAMES I.

Robert Carr, Duke of Somerset, d. 1645.—One of the favourites of James, who made him Duke of Somerset. He formed an illicit connection with the Countess of Essex, and when

Sir Thomas Overbury, 1581–1613, opposed his marriage with her, he had him committed to the Tower, where, by the contrivance of Somerset and his paramour, he was murdered. James pardoned the murderers; and it is supposed that in doing so he was desirous of preventing the disclosure of secrets in which he himself was implicated.

Arabella Stuart, 1575–1615. (*See* p. 42, s. 162.)

Francis, Lord Bacon, 1561–1626.—Philosopher, statesman, lawyer, and historian. Author of the ‘Novum Organum,’ and other works. His first great patron was the unfortunate Earl of Essex; he conducted the impeachment of that nobleman to make his

court to Queen Elizabeth. Under King James he was made Viscount St. Albans and Lord Chancellor; but he was afterwards impeached, degraded, and imprisoned upon the charge of taking bribes from suitors in Chancery.

Sir Walter Raleigh, 1552–1618.—Visited America, from which he is said to have brought back the potato and tobacco. Distinguished himself at the defeat of the Armada. Took part in the Main Plot of 1618, which was made the pretext for his execution several years later, upon the occasion of his disastrous expedition to Guiana. He wrote a ‘History of the World.’

George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, 1592–1628.—A brilliant profligate, who succeeded Carr in the king’s favour, and afterwards in that of his son, Charles I. He was stabbed by one Felton, while making preparation for the third expedition against Rochelle.

CHARLES I.

Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, 1593–1641.—Was at first a member of the Roundhead party, but afterwards passed over to the king, and became, as he called it, ‘Thorough;’ i.e., an advocate of absolute monarchy, maintained by military force. In 1640 he was made deputy-lieutenant of Ireland, which he reduced to profound subordination. He was finally impeached by the Long Parliament, tried for high treason, condemned, and executed.

John Hampden, 1594–1643.—A byword for patriotism. He refused to pay ‘ship-money.’ (See p. 46, s. 170.) For this he was tried, fined, and imprisoned. He was afterwards one of the ‘Five Members’ (see p. 47, s. 177), fought on the Parliament side at the battle of Chalgrove Field, and died in great agony of wounds received there.

Lucius Cary, Viscount Falkland, 1610–1643.—On the Parliament side before the civil war, but was killed on that of the king at the battle of Newbury. ‘Rather than war, the peace of death,’ was his constant maxim, and the word ‘peace’ in his last days was for ever on his lips.

John Pym, 1584–1643.—Conducted the impeachment of Strafford, whom he hated. One of the ‘Five Members,’ the others being Hampden, Haselrig, Holles, and Strode. (See p. 47, s. 177.)

William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, 1573–1645.—Very cruel in the Star Chamber. Tried for the same offences as Strafford, whose colleague he was in all things, and beheaded.

Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, 1592–1646.—A commander of the Parliamentary army.

James Graham, Marquis of Montrose, 1612-1650.—A firm Royalist. After winning several battles for Charles, he was defeated at Philliphaugh. In 1650 he was taken and hanged, after an ineffectual attempt in Scotland in favour of Charles II.

Inigo Jones, 1572-1652.—A celebrated architect, who built Whitehall Palace.

William Harvey, 1578-1657.—A celebrated physician, who discovered the circulation of the blood.

Thomas, Lord Fairfax, 1611-1671.—A commander in the Parliamentary army.

Prince Rupert, 1619-1682.—Son of Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia, sister of Charles I. One of the bravest of the Royalists. In Charles II.'s reign he was Lord High Admiral.

THE COMMONWEALTH AND PROTECTORATES.

Henry Ireton, 1610-1651.—A republican general, son-in-law of Oliver Cromwell, and one of the regicides.

Admiral Blake, 1599-1657.—A great naval commander. Repeatedly beat the Dutch under Van Tromp, demolished the fort of Tunis, and set fire to the Spanish fleet at Santa Cruz. He died on board his ship when returning to England after this last exploit.

John Bradshaw, 1586-1659.—President of the High Commission, and one of the regicides.

Sir Harry Vane, 1612-1662.—A staunch republican, but a regicide, and therefore unjustly executed by Charles II. on his coming to the throne.

George Monk, Duke of Albemarle, 1608-1670.—Commanded the army in Scotland. After Cromwell's death he was instrumental in bringing about the Restoration.

CHARLES II.

Henrietta of Orleans, 1644-1670.—Daughter of Charles I and married to the Duke of Orleans. Ancestress of the Count of Chambord, the present Legitimist heir to the French throne.

Edward Hyde, Lord Clarendon, 1608-1674.—Minister of Charles II. James II., when Duke of York, married his daughter Anne, the mother of the Protestant princesses Mary and Anne. He was thought to have recommended Catherine of Braganza as wife to Charles II., in order that his own grand-daughters might, as indeed they did, succeed to the throne. On this account, and also because of the sale of Dunkirk to France, and the triumphs of the Dutch in the Medway off Woolwich and Chatham, a thing without precedent

or parallel in English history, he became no less unpopular with the people than the strictness of his Protestantism and the austerity of his manners had made him already with the court. Being impeached, he fled to France, and died ultimately at Rouen, where he wrote his 'History of the Great Rebellion.'

James Sharp, 1618-1679.—Having deserted the Presbyterians, Sharp was created Archbishop of St. Andrews, but eighteen years afterwards he paid the penalty of his apostacy and of his persecuting spirit, for a body of Covenanters fell upon him at Magus Muir, dragged him from his carriage, and murdered him.

Anthony Ashley Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury, 1621-1683.—Chancellor of the Exchequer in this reign; a member of the 'Cabal' (*see* p. 51, s. 206), and the Achitophel of Dryden's 'Absalom and Achitophel.' He died an exile in Holland, whither he had retired upon the failure of his plots to exclude the Duke of York from the throne.

William, Lord Russell, 1639-1683.—Executed for complicity in the Rye House Plot. (*See* p. 52, s. 217.)

Algernon Sidney, 1617-1683.—A republican, who in his youth fought in the ranks of the Parliamentarians, and author of 'Discourses Concerning Government.' He shared the fate of Russell.

Sir W. Temple, 1628-1698.—An eminent writer, statesman, and diplomatist, who especially distinguished himself in bringing about the Triple Alliance (*see* p. 51, s. 207) and the marriage between William of Orange and the Princess Mary.

Titus Oates, 1619-1705.—(*See* p. 51, s. 211.)

Lord Danby, 1631-1712.—Minister of Charles II. after the fall of the 'Cabal.' Subsequently impeached by the House of Commons, and committed to the Tower, for aiding the king in his intrigues, but admitted to bail. President of the Council in the Convention Parliament, 1689.

Sir Christopher Wren, 1632-1723.—A celebrated architect, who rebuilt St. Paul's Cathedral after the fire of London.

JAMES II.

James, Duke of Monmouth, 1649-1685.—Natural son of Charles II. by Lucy Walters. Won the battle of Bothwell Bridge over the Covenanters. Rebelled against James; was defeated at Sedgemoor, made prisoner, and executed in 1685.

Archibald Campbell, Earl of Argyll, d. 1685.—Rebelled against James in Scotland; was taken, and executed.

Judge Jeffreys, 1640-1689.—Lord High Chancellor. Deified

the supreme judge's ermine by his atrocious cruelties in the Western Assize, after Monmouth's rebellion. At the abdication of James he would probably have fallen a victim to the popular indignation had he not been withdrawn from it by speedy imprisonment in the Tower, where he died, from the combined effects of fright, remorse, drink, and disease.

John, Lord Somers, 1650–1716.—Chief Justice. Principal author of the 'Bill of Rights,' and a marked contrast to the foregoing. He defended the Seven Bishops (*see* p. 53, s. 221), and was created Chief Justice by William III.

William Penn, 1644–1718.—A Quaker, son of the Admiral Penn who took Jamaica in the Spanish war of 1655. He was an enthusiast for liberty of conscience, and a fearless defender of his sect. He founded the colony of Pennsylvania, U.S., in 1681.

WILLIAM III.

Graham of Claverhouse, Marquis of Dundee, 1650–1689.—Defeated the Covenanters at Drumclog in 1679. He espoused the cause of James II. in Scotland, and was killed at the battle of Killiecrankie, which he won over Mackay.

Armand, Duke of Schomberg, 1619–1690.—One of William's bravest generals, who was killed at the battle of the Boyne.

George Saville, Marquis of Halifax, 1630–1695.—Minister of Charles II., James II., and William. The accomplished leader of the neutral political body called 'The Trimmers,' which opposed the excesses of either party, whether Whig or Tory, that was for the time being in the ascendant.

John Dalrymple, Master of Stair, 1673–1707.—Scotch secretary of State at the time of the massacre of Glencoe. (*See* p. 54, s. 231.)

Admiral Benbow, 1650–1702.—A distinguished naval commander, who died of wounds received in the West Indies.

Godart van Ginkel, 1630–1703.—Another of William's generals, who won the battle of Aughrim, and became Earl of Athlone.

Admiral Russell, 1651–1727.—Defeated the French Admiral Tourville, off La Hogue.

ANNE.

Sir Cloudesley Shovel, 1650–1707.—A famous admiral, who blockaded Toulon in this reign, and was lost off the Scilly Isles on his return.

Sir George Rooke, 1650–1709.—Another famous admiral, who took Gibraltar in 1704.

Sidney, Earl of Godolphin, 1630–1712.—Lord High Treasurer in this and the previous reign.

John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, 1650–1722.—England's greatest general after Wellington. For James he helped to win the battle of Sedgemoor; for William he won Cork and Kinsale; for Anne, Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. Under William he plotted for James; under Anne he was disgraced, but was restored to favour by George I., in whose reign he died. Love of money and want of principle cloud his fame. His wife, **Sarah Jennings, Duchess of Marlborough** (1660–1744), was Anne's favourite and chief adviser until they quarrelled.

Dr. Henry Sacheverell, 1672–1724.—A Tory divine, who preached passive obedience and non-resistance to regal authority, for which offence he was unwisely impeached by the Whig ministry, and became very popular in consequence.

Robert Harley, Earl of Oxford, 1661–1724.—A minister in the reign of Anne, and of William and Mary. He was impeached by the Whigs in the reign of George I., and imprisoned for treason for 10 years.

Abigail Hill (Mrs. Masham), *d.* 1734.—A favourite, who succeeded the Duchess of Marlborough with the queen, and showing herself as meek and submissive as her predecessor was arrogant and unbearing, precipitated that predecessor's fall, and with it the fall of the Whig ministry.

Charles Mordaunt, Earl of Peterborough, 1658–1735.—Commanded the English forces in Spain, and took Barcelona.

Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke, 1678–1751.—A celebrated Tory statesman in this reign. Wrote the 'Patriot King.' He was impeached by the Whigs, in the succeeding reign, for plotting the restoration of the Catholic Stuart line.

GEORGE I.

James Radcliffe, Earl of Derwentwater, 1689–1716.

William Gordon, Lord Kenmure, 1643–1716.—Adherents of the 'Old Pretender,' executed in 1716. (*See* p. 59, s. 249.)

John Erskine, Earl of Mar, 1671–1732.—Raised a rebellion in Scotland in favour of the 'Old Pretender,' but was defeated at Sheriffmuir. (*See* p. 59, s. 249.)

Francis Atterbury, 1662–1732.—Bishop of Rochester. A very learned and eloquent writer on the Jacobite side. A bill of pains and penalties was brought into the Lords against him for

being concerned in a Jacobite plot, and he was found guilty and banished for life.

William Maxwell, Lord Withisdale, 1702-1744.—An adherent of the 'Old Pretender,' sentenced to death with Derwentwater and Kenmure. He escaped by changing clothes with his wife the night before the day fixed for his execution.

James Stuart, 1688-1765.—Son of James II., and commonly called the 'Old Pretender.' After the unsuccessful attempts of the foregoing on his behalf, he retired to Rome, where he died in 1765

GEORGE II.

Sir Robert Walpole, 1676-1745.—Prime Minister of the two first Georges. Notwithstanding his dictum that 'every man has his price' (his own being a picture by Cuyp or Rubens), and the unblushing corruption of the time, the country unquestionably prospered and grew rich under his long and peaceful administration. A powerful coalition of his enemies at length compelled him to resign, when he was pensioned and made Earl of Oxford.

Henry Pelham, 1695-1754.—Prime Minister from 1745 to 1754.

Admiral John Byng, 1704-1757.—Failed to relieve Minorca, which was taken by the French. Byng was tried by court-martial, and shot, in the indignant words of Voltaire, '*pour encourager les autres.*'

Admiral Edward Vernon, 1684-1757.—Took Porto Bello, in the Isthmus of Darien, from the Spaniards; but was repulsed of Carthagena.

James Wolfe, 1726-1759.—A famous general, who captured Quebec, but was killed in the battle which he won before it.

Admiral Lord Anson, 1697-1762.—Circumnavigated the globe and, capturing a galleon returning from Mexico with treasure, came back with fabulous riches. He beat the French off Finisterre but was afterwards repulsed in his turn at Cherbourg.

William Pulteney, Earl of Bath, 1682-1764.—The most able and considerable of Walpole's opponents.

William, Duke of Cumberland, 1721-1765.—Second son of George II. and Commander of the Forces. He was defeated by Marshal Saxe at Fontenoy, and defeated the Young Pretender at Culloden, where his cruelties earned him the name of 'the Butcher.'

Thomas Pelham, Duke of Newcastle, 1694-1768.—Henry Pelham's brother, who succeeded him for a year or two, but was compelled to resign. Smollett has bitterly ridiculed him in the '*Adventures of an Atom.*'

Lord Clive, 1725–1774.—Founded the British Empire in India; won the battles of Arcot and Plassey, and greatly extended our power in the East. He was impeached on his return from India in 1767 for abuse of power, but acquitted. He died by his own hand in 1774.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, 1708–1778.—The ‘Great Commoner.’ Succeeded Walpole in 1742, and conducted the ‘Seven Years’ War.’

Lord George Sackville, 1716–1785.—(See p. 61, s. 267.)

Charles Edward Stuart, 1720–1788.—Grandson of James II., and commonly styled the ‘Young Pretender.’ Made an attempt to regain the crown, but was defeated at Culloden. He escaped, and died at Rome many years afterwards.

GEORGE III.

Lord Heathfield, 1718–1790.—Successfully defended Gibraltar for more than three years against the combined French and Spanish fleet. Charles of Spain was in the habit of asking daily if the place was taken, and to the invariable negative always returned—‘It will be soon.’ We still, however, hold the ‘Key of the Mediterranean.’

John, Lord Bute, 1713–1792.—Prime Minister at the beginning of this reign. He became very unpopular, and in 1763 resigned office.

Lord George Gordon, 1750–1793.—(See p. 62, s. 277.)

William Murray, Lord Mansfield, 1705–1793.—‘The silver-tongued Murray,’ who was Lord Chief Justice in this reign.

John Wilkes, 1727–1797.—A seditious and profligate demagogue, who attacked government in the ‘North Briton,’ and was arrested on a general warrant, which was subsequently pronounced illegal. He was then expelled from Parliament, re-elected, and his re-election reversed. He proved ultimately quite unworthy of the public confidence, and sank into forgotten insignificance.

Edmund Burke, 1730–1797.—A great author and statesman, who wrote an essay on the ‘Sublime and Beautiful,’ joined in the impeachment of Warren Hastings, and took an active part against the French Revolution.

George Washington, 1732–1799.—Led the Americans in the War of Independence, which he ultimately brought to a successful issue by surrounding Lord Cornwallis at York Town, and compelling him to capitulate. He was thereupon made the first President of the United States. He left an unstained reputation, and his birthday is kept to this day by his countrymen.

Admiral Lord Howe, 1725-1799.—Relieved Gibraltar, and obtained the victory over the French fleet of the first of June.

Admiral Adam Duncan, 1731-1804.—Won the Battle of Camperdown over the Dutch.

Lord Cornwallis, 1738-1805.—Served in America, where he capitulated to Washington at York Town in 1781. Viceroy of Ireland during the Irish Rebellion of 1799. Afterwards Governor-General of India, where he regained the laurels he had lost in the Western Hemisphere.

Horatio, Lord Viscount Nelson, 1758-1805.—More than half won St. Vincent's. Won the battles of the Nile, the Baltic, and Trafalgar, in which last, happier than Wellington, who survived the gratitude of his country for nearly a quarter of a century, he died at the height of his popularity. He was buried in St. Paul's, but the country he had served neglected her greatest admiral's dying prayer in behalf of his surviving daughter.

Charles James Fox, 1749-1806.—In favour of the French Revolution, and opposed to the French Revolutionary war. He was styled the great opponent of Pitt, and wrote an historical fragment on the Reign of James II.

William Pitt, 1759-1806.—Son of Earl Chatham, styled 'the pilot that weathered the storm;' though, in point of fact, he was shipwrecked, dying prematurely worn out by chagrin and disappointment at the failure of all his leagues against Napoleon, which had involved the country in an enormous national debt during his brilliant but disastrous premiership.

Sir John Moore, 1761-1809.—Won the battle of Corunna, where he lost his life.

Admiral Lord Collingwood, 1748-1810.—Nelson's chief captain.

Richard Brinsley Sheridan, 1751-1816.—Co-impeacher with Burke and Fox of Warren Hastings, upon which occasion he made his famous 'Begum speech,' which is said to have made an unparalleled impression on the House of Commons. The life of this brilliant orator and dramatist was passed in pecuniary difficulties and careless dissipation. He died miserably, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Warren Hastings, 1733-1818.—First Governor-General of India. His administration was able and beneficial. By the victories over Hyder Ali he secured the Carnatic; but the treasury being exhausted, and the India proprietors at home clamorous, he was driven to grave acts of oppression. For this he was impeached on

his return to England, but acquitted after a seven years' trial; and the East India Company gave him a handsome pension.

Robert Stewart, Viscount Castlereagh, 1769-1822.—Colonial and Foreign Secretary in this reign. He died by his own hand.

Admiral Sir John Jervis, 1734-1823.—Won the naval battle of St. Vincent, with Nelson and Collingwood, from which success he earned his subsequent title of Lord St. Vincent.

William Wilberforce, 1759-1833.—A distinguished agitator and orator in favour of the abolition of the slave trade, which was ultimately effected by his perseverance. He was also the author of a work called 'A Practical View of the Prevailing System of Professed Christians.'

John Scott, Lord Eldon, 1751-1838.—Solicitor-General, Attorney-General, Lord Chief Justice, and Lord Chancellor in this reign.

Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, 1769-1852.—England's greatest general. He earned his first laurels in India, at Assaye and Argaum; bombarded Copenhagen with Gambier and Cathcart; drove the French out of Portugal at Vimiera; won the battles of Talavera, Busaco, and Fuentes d'Onoro; took Badajoz and Ciudad Rodrigo; won the battles of Salamanca, Vittoria, the Pyrenees, Orthès, and Toulouse; entered Paris and compelled Napoleon to abdicate; and, finally, won the battles of Quatre Bras and Waterloo, which completed the downfall of Napoleon. He became Prime Minister in 1828; passed the repeal of the Corporation and Test Acts in that year, and the Catholic Emancipation Act in 1829, but, opposing reform, resigned in 1830. He died in 1852.

GEORGE IV. and WILLIAM IV.

George Canning, 1770-1827.—Governor-General of India, Foreign Secretary and Premier in George IV.'s reign. The emancipation of the Roman Catholics is mainly due to his efforts.

Lord William Bentinck, 1774-1839.—Distinguished himself as the proto-hero of Italian independence. He was afterwards Governor-General of India (1828-35).

Daniel O'Connell, 1775-1847.—A notorious demagogue and agitator. He advocated the repeal of the Union of England and Ireland. At last, being tried and convicted of sedition and conspiracy, and his influence waning in consequence, he retired to Genoa, where he died.

Admiral Sir Edward Codrington, 1770-1851.—Fought in *Howe's* victory of the first of June, 1794, and defeated the Turks at *Navarino* in 1827.

VICTORIA.

Lord George Bentinck, 1802-1848.—A distinguished Conservative leader, and head of the so-called 'Protectionist' party, who opposed the repeal of the Corn Laws. (See p. 68, s. 339.)

Sir Robert Peel, 1788-1850.—Established the Police Force, carried the Catholic Emancipation Bill, imposed the Income Tax, and repealed the Corn Laws. He was Premier in 1834-5 and 1841-6.

General Sir Charles James Napier, 1782-1853.—Served in the Peninsula, and afterwards won the battles of Meanee and Dubba (Hyderabad), in Scinde.

Lord Raglan, 1788-1855.—A Peninsular veteran, who was commander-in-chief in the Crimea, where he died.

Sir Henry Havelock, 1795-1857.—A distinguished Indian officer. In the Sepoy mutiny he took Cawnpore and relieved Lucknow.

Thomas, Lord Dundonald, 1775-1860.—A distinguished admiral. (See p. 64, s. 303.)

George, Lord Aberdeen, 1784-1860.—Minister in various capacities. Premier in 1852-5.

Admiral Sir Charles John Napier, 1786-1860.—Took Acre and Beyrout in the Syrian war. In the Crimean war he commanded the English fleet in the Baltic, and took Bomarsund, in the Åland Islands. He was replaced by Admiral Dundas.

Sir George Cornewall Lewis, 1806-1863.—Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1855-8 and 1861. Editor of the 'Edinburgh,' and author of various works.

Lord Clyde, 1792-1863.—Served in the Peninsula and the Crimea, and was commander-in-chief in the Indian mutiny.

Richard Cobden, 1804-1865.—Aided in the abolition of the Corn Laws, and negotiated a Commercial Treaty with France in 1860.

Henry Temple, Viscount Palmerston, 1784-1865.—Minister in various capacities for half a century. He held the Premiership from 1859 to 1865, when he died, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Henry, Lord Brougham, 1778-1868.—Lord Chancellor in 1830. He defended Queen Caroline, and was one of the founders of the 'Edinburgh Review.' Lord Brougham greatly aided the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, and did much for the improvement of the working classes.

Edward, Earl of Derby, 1799-1869.—Minister in various capacities. Premier in 1852, 1858-9, and 1866-8. Lord Derby

published a translation of the 'Iliad' into English blank verse in 1865.

Edward, Earl Clarendon, 1800-1870.—Minister in various capacities. He was Foreign Secretary in 1853-8, 1865-6, and 1868-70.

John, Earl Russell, *b.* 1792.—Carried the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts in 1828, and passed the first Reform Bill in 1832. Earl Russell has been Colonial Secretary, Home Secretary, Foreign Secretary, Lord President of the Council, and First Lord of the Treasury. He is also the author of some historical and biographical works.

Benjamin Disraeli, *b.* 1805.—Chancellor of the Exchequer, 1852, 1858-9, and 1866-8; Premier, 1868. Passed the new Reform Bill in 1867. Mr. Disraeli is the author of a 'Biography of Lord George Bentinck,' and of 'Vivian Grey,' 'Coningsby,' 'Lothair,' and other novels.

William Ewart Gladstone, *b.* 1809.—Has been President of the Board of Trade, Colonial Secretary, and Chancellor of the Exchequer. He became Premier in 1868, and in that capacity passed his bill for the dis-establishment of the Irish Church. Mr. Gladstone is the author of 'Church and State,' 'Studies on Homer,' 'Juventus Mundi,' &c.

Robert, Lord Napier of Magdala, *b.* 1810.—A distinguished Indian officer, who commanded the English forces in Abyssinia, and took Magdala.

Sir John Lawrence, *b.* 1810.—Called the 'Saviour of India,' of which he was made Governor-General in 1863. He became Lord Lawrence of the Punjaub in January 1869.

John Bright, *b.* 1811.—M.P. for Birmingham since 1857. Has powerfully aided in the abolition of the Corn Laws and the progress of Reform. Became President of the Board of Trade in 1868.

APPENDIX VII.

ENGLISH BATTLEFIELDS.

A LIST OF SOME OF THE PLACES WHERE THE CELEBRATED BATTLES OF ENGLISH HISTORY WERE FOUGHT, ARRANGED IN ALPHABETICAL ORDER.*

Aboukir Bay (Mouth of the Nile, Egypt).—Defeat of the French by Nelson, 1798. This is also called the 'Battle of the Nile.'

Acro (Palestine, Syria).—Taken by Richard I. and Philip II. of France, 1192. Defeat of Bonaparte by Sir Sidney Smith, 1799. Bombarded by the English, 1840.

Agincourt (Department Maine-et-Loire, France).—Defeat of the French by Henry V., 1415.

Albuera (Province Estremadura, Spain).—Defeat of the French by Beresford, 1811.

Alexandria (Coast of Egypt).—Defeat of the French by Sir Ralph Abercrombie, 1801.

Algiers (Algeria, Africa).—Bombardment by Lord Exmouth, and release of slaves, 1816.

Aliwal (Punjaub, India).—Defeat of the Sikhs by the English, 1846.

Alma (Crimea, Russia).—Defeat of the Russians by the English and French, 1854.

Alnwick (Northumberland).—Defeat of William, King of Scotland, and the sons of Henry II., by Henry's troops, 1175.

Arcot (Carnatic, India).—Taken by Clive, 1751.—Taken by Hyder Ali, 1780.

Ascalon (Palestine, Syria).—Taken by Richard I., 1192.

Assaye (Central India).—Defeat of the Mahrattas by Wellington, 1803.

Aughrim (Galway, Ireland).—Defeat of the French by the English under Ginkel, 1691.

* The learner will find it aid his memory if he marks the positions of these places (with the dates of the corresponding battles) upon rough sketch maps, similar to those described and recommended in the 'Civil Service Geography.'

Badajoz (Province Estremadura, Spain).—Taken by Wellington, 1812.

Balaclava (Crimea, Russia).—Defeat of the Russians by the English and French, 1854.

Bannockburn (Stirlingshire, Scotland).—Defeat of Edward II. by Robert Bruce, 1314.

Barnet (Hertfordshire).—Defeat of Warwick (the king-maker) by Edward IV., 1471. Warwick was here slain.

Barossa (Province Cadiz, Spain).—Defeat of the French by Sir T. Graham, 1811.

Basque Roads (S.W. Coast of France).—Four French ships of the line blown up by Lord Cochrane, 1809.

Beyrout (Syria).—Bombarded by the English, 1840.

Blackheath (Kent).—Defeat of the Cornish rebels by King Henry VII.'s troops, 1497.

Blenheim (Bavaria).—Defeat of the French and Spanish by the English, Austrians, and Dutch, under Marlborough, 1704.

Blore Heath (Staffordshire).—Defeat of the Lancastrians by the Yorkists, 1459.

Boroughbridge (Yorkshire).—Defeat of the Duke of Lancaster by Edward II., 1322.

Bosworth (Leicestershire).—Defeat of Richard III. by Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, 1485. This was the last battle in the Wars of the Roses.

Bothwell Bridge (Lanarkshire, Scotland).—Defeat of the Covenanters by the Duke of Monmouth, 1679.

Boyne (Meath, Ireland).—Defeat of James II. by William III., 1690.

Brandywine (Pennsylvania).—Defeat of Washington by the English, 1777.

Brooklyn (State of New York, United States).—Defeat of Washington by the English, 1776.

Bunker's Hill (Massachusetts, United States).—Defeat of the colonists by the royal troops, 1775.

Busaco (Province Beira, Portugal).—Defeat of the French by Wellington, 1810.

Cadiz (Province Andalusia, Spain).—Taken by Howard of Effingham, 1596.

Calais (Department Pas de Calais, France).—Taken by Edward III. after a siege of eleven months, 1347. Retaken by the French in 1558.

Cambuskenneth (Stirlingshire, Scotland).—Defeat of the English by Sir William Wallace, 1297.

Camperdown (Province North Holland, Netherlands).—Defeat of the Dutch fleet by Duncan, off Camperdown, 1797.

Cape St. Vincent (South-West extremity of Portugal).—Victory gained by Jervis over the Spanish fleet, 1797.

Cawnpore (Allahabad, India).—Massacre of Europeans during the Indian Mutiny, 1857.

Chalgrove Field (Oxfordshire).—Skirmish between the Royalists and Parliamentarians, in which John Hampden was slain, 1643.

Chaluz (Department Haute Vienne, France).—Castle besieged by Richard I., who died of a wound he here received, 1199.

Chillianwallah (Punjab, India).—Defeat of the Sikhs by the English, 1849.

Cintra (Province Estremadura, Spain).—Convention for the evacuation of Portugal by the French, 1808.

Ciudad Rodrigo (Province Leon, Spain).—Taken by Wellington, 1812.

Copenhagen (Province Zealand, Denmark).—Defeat of the Danish fleet by Nelson, 1801. Bombardment of the town by the English, 1807.

Corunna (Province Corunna, Spain).—Defeat of the French by Sir John Moore, 1809.

Cravant (Department Yonne, France).—Defeat of the French by the English, 1423.

Cressy (Department Somme, France).—Defeat of the French by Edward III. and the Black Prince, 1346. In this battle gunpowder was first used.

Culloden, or Drumossie Moor (Croy, Nairn and Inverness, Scotland).—Final defeat of the Young Pretender by the Duke of Cumberland, 1746.

Delhi (N.W. Provinces, India).—Massacre of Europeans during the Indian Mutiny, 1857.

Dettingen (Bavaria).—Defeat of the French by the English and Dutch under George II., 1743.

Dubba (Scinde, India).—Ameers of Scinde defeated by Sir Charles Napier, 1843.

Dunbar (Haddington, Scotland).—Defeat of Baliol by Edward I., 1296. Defeat of the Covenanters by Cromwell, 1650.

Dunkirk (Department du Nord, France).—Taken by Cromwell, 658.

Edgehill (Warwickshire).—A drawn battle between Charles I. and the Parliamentarians, 1642.

Ethandun (Edington, Wiltshire).—Defeat of the Danes by Alfred, 878.

Evesham (Worcestershire).—Defeat of Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, by Prince Edward (afterwards Edward I.), 1265.

Falkirk (Stirlingshire, Scotland).—Defeat of Wallace by Edward I., 1298.

Ferozeshah (N.W. India).—Defeat of the Sikhs by the English, 1845.

Flodden Field (Northumberland).—Defeat of the Scotch by the English, 1513. King James IV. of Scotland was here slain.

Fontenoy (Province Hainault, Belgium).—Defeat of the French by the Duke of Cumberland, 1745.

Fuentes d'Onoro (Province Salamanca, Spain).—Defeat of the French by Wellington, 1811.

Gibraltar (South of Spain).—Taken by Rooke, 1704. Held by Lord Heathfield, 1779–83, against the fleets and armies of France and Spain.

Glencoe (Argyleshire, Scotland).—Massacre of the clan of McLan of Glencoe, 1692.

Goojerat (Punjab, India).—Defeat of the Sikhs by the English, 1849.

Guinegate (Department Pas de Calais, France).—Defeat of the French by the English and Austrians, 1513. This is also called the 'Battle of the Spurs.'

Halidon Hill (Berwick, Scotland).—Defeat of Douglas, Regent of Scotland, by Edward III., 1333.

Harfleur (Department Seine Inférieure, France).—Taken by Henry V., 1415.

Hastings (Sussex).—Defeat of the Saxons by William the Conqueror, 1066. William derived his title from this battle, and here Harold was slain.

Hedgely Moor (Northumberland).—Defeat of the Lancastrians by the Yorkists, 1464.

Hexham (Northumberland).—Defeat of the Lancastrians by the Yorkists, 1464.

Homildon Hill (near Wooler, Northumberland).—Defeat of the Scotch by the Percies, 1402.

Inkerman (Crimea, Russia).—Defeat of the Russians by the English and French, 1854.

Kars (Turkey in Asia).—Capitulated under General Williams, 1855.

Kennyree (Punjaub, India).—Defeat of the Sikhs by the English, 1848.

Khyber Pass (Afghanistan).—Massacre of the English by the Afghans, 1841.

Killiecrankie (Perthshire, Scotland).—Defeat of the English by Dundee, 1689.

La Hogue (North-East extremity of La Manche, France).—Defeat of the French by Admiral Russell, 1692.

Landen (Province Liège, Belgium).—Defeat of William III. by the French, 1693.

Langside (Renfrew, Scotland).—Defeat of the Scotch by the Regent Murray, 1568.

Lewes (Sussex).—Defeat of Henry III. by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, 1264.

Lexington (Kentucky, United States).—Defeat of the royal troops by the colonists, 1775.

Limerick (Limerick, Ireland).—Taken by William III.'s troops, 1691.

Lincoln (Lincolnshire).—Defeat of Stephen by the Empress Maud, 1141. Defeat of Louis, the Dauphin of France, by the Earl of Pembroke, 1217.

Londonderry (Londonderry, Ireland).—Relieved by William III.'s troops when besieged by James II., 1689.

Lucknow (Oude, India).—Massacre of Europeans during the Indian Mutiny, 1857.

Magdala (Amhara, Abyssinia).—Taken by the English under Lord Napier, 1868.

Maida (Calabria, Italy).—Defeat of the French by Sir John Stuart, 1806.

Malplaquet (Department du Nord, France).—Defeat of the French and Spanish by Marlborough, 1709.

Marston Moor (Yorkshire).—Defeat of the Royalists by the *Parliamentarians*, 1644.

Meane (Scinde, India).—Defeat of Ameers of Scinde by Sir Napier, 1843.

rut (Meerut, India).—Massacre of Europeans during the Mutiny, 1857.

den (Westphalia, Prussia).—Defeat of the French by the and Hanoverians, 1759.

orca (Balearic Isles, Mediterranean).—Unsuccessful expedition by Byng, 1756.

dkee (N.W. India).—Defeat of the Sikhs by the English,

timer's Cross (Herefordshire).—Defeat of the Lancastrians and Duke of York, 1461.

oby (Northamptonshire).—Defeat of Charles I. by Oliver Cromwell, 1645.

arino (Morea, Greece).—Defeat of the Turkish and Egyptian, 1827.

lle's Cross (near Durham).—Defeat of David Bruce by Percy, 1346.

bury (Berkshire).—First battle of Newbury between the Royalists and Parliamentarians, 1643. Lord Falkland slain, undecided. Second battle of Newbury between the Royalists and Parliamentarians, also undecided, 1644.

thallerton (Yorkshire).—Defeat of David, King of Scotland, by Robert Bruce, 1138. This is usually called the 'Battle of the Standard.'

thampton (Northamptonshire).—Defeat of the Yorkists by the Lancastrians, 1460. Here the Duke of York was slain.

ans (Department Loiret, France).—Relief of the town by the French, 1429.

es (Department Basses Pyrénées, France).—Defeat of the French by Wellington, 1814.

rburn, or Chevy Chase (Northumberland).—Defeat of the English by the Scotch, 1388.

enarde (Province East Flanders, Belgium).—Defeat of the English and Spanish by Marlborough, 1708.

lphaugh (near Selkirk, Scotland).—Defeat of the Royalists by the Parliamentarians, 1645.

le (near Musselburgh, Scotland).—Defeat of the Scotch by the English or Somerset, 1547.

sey (Bengal, India).—Defeat of the Surajah Dowlah by the British, 1757.

Poitiers (Department Vienne, France).—Defeat of John, King of France, by Edward the Black Prince, 1356.

Preston (Lancashire).—Defeat of the Scots and Royalists by Cromwell, 1648. Second battle of Preston gained by George I.'s troops over the Pretender, 1715.

Preston Pans (Haddington, Scotland).—Defeat of George II.'s troops by Charles Edward, the Young Pretender, 1745.

Pyrenees (Spain).—Defeat of the French by Wellington, 1813.

Quatre Bras (Province South Brabant, Belgium).—Defeat of the French by Wellington, 1815.

Quebec (Province Quebec, Canada).—Defeat of the French by the English. By this battle Canada was acquired, 1759.

Ramillies (Province South Brabant, Belgium).—Defeat of the Spanish by Marlborough, 1706.

Ramnugger (Punjaub, India).—Defeat of the Sikhs by the English, 1848.

Rochelle (Department Charente Inférieure, France).—Three unsuccessful attempts were made by the English to relieve the Huguenots when besieged by Cardinal Richelieu, 1627–8–8.

St. Albans (Hertfordshire).—Invaded and burnt by Julius Cæsar, B.C. 54. Defeat of the Lancastrians by the Yorkists, 1455. Defeat of the Yorkists by the Lancastrians, 1461.

St. Quentin (Department Aisne, France).—Defeat of the French by the English, 1557.

St. Vincent, Cape (S.E. of Portugal).—Defeat of the Spanish fleet by Jervis, 1797.

Salamanca (Province Salamanca, Spain).—Defeat of the French by Wellington, 1812.

Saratoga (State of New York, United States).—Capitulation of the royal troops under Burgoyne during the American war, 1777.

Sebastopol (Crimea, Russia).—Taken by the English, French, and Sardinians, 1856.

Sedgemoor (Somersetshire).—Defeat of the Duke of Monmouth by the king's troops, 1685.

Sheriffmuir (near Dumblane, Perth, Scotland).—Indecisive battle between George I.'s troops and the Earl of Mar, who fought for the 'Young Pretender,' 1715.

Shrewsbury (Salop).—Defeat of the Percies and Owen Glendower by Henry IV., 1403.

Sluys (Zealand, Netherlands).—Defeat of the French by Edward III., 1340.

Sobraon (N.W. India).—Defeat of the Sikhs by the English, 1846.

Solway Moss (Cumberland).—Defeat of the Scotch by the English, 1542.

Stamford Bridge (Yorkshire).—Defeat of Harold Hardrada by Harold II., 1066.

Steinkirk, or Enghien (Province Hainault, Belgium).—Defeat of William III. by the French, 1692.

Stoke (near Newark, Nottinghamshire).—Defeat of Lambert Simnel by Henry VII., 1487.

Talavera (Province Toledo, Spain).—Defeat of the French by Wellington, 1809.

Terouenne (Department Pas de Calais, France).—Taken by Henry VIII. and the Emperor Maximilian, 1513.

Tewkesbury (Gloucestershire).—Defeat of the Lancastrians by the Yorkists, 1471, after which Queen Margaret was thrown into the Tower.

Tinchebrai (Department Orne, France).—Defeat of Robert, Duke of Normandy, by his brother, Henry I., 1106.

Toulouse (Department Haute Garonne, France).—Defeat of the French by Wellington, 1814.

Tournay (Province Hainault, Belgium).—Taken by Henry VIII. and the Emperor Maximilian, 1513.

Towton (Yorkshire).—Defeat of the Lancastrians by the Yorkists, 1461.

Trafalgar, Cape (S. of Spain).—Total defeat of the French and Spanish fleets by Nelson, 1805.

Ushant (Island off Department of Finisterre, France).—Defeat of the French by Lord Howe, 1794.

Verneuil (Department Eure, France).—Defeat of the French by the Earl of Salisbury, 1424.

Vimiera (Province Estremadura, Portugal).—Defeat of the French by Wellington, 1808.

Vinegar Hill (near Wexford, Ireland).—Defeat of the Irish rebels by General Lake, 1798.

Vittoria (Province Vittoria, Spain).—Defeat of the French by Wellington, 1813.

Wakefield (Yorkshire).—Defeat of the Yorkists by the Lancastrians, 1460.

Walcheren (Zealand, Netherlands).—Unsuccessful expedition to attack Antwerp, under the Earl of Chatham, 1809.

Waterloo (Province South Brabant, Belgium).—Defeat of the French by Wellington, 1815.

Worcester (Worcestershire).—Defeat of Prince Charles by Cromwell, 1651.

Wye (Wales).—Defeat of Llewellyn by Edward I., 1283.

York-Town (State Virginia, United States).—Defeat of the English by the French and Americans, 1781.

Zutphen (Guelderland, Netherlands).—Defeat of the Spanish by the Dutch and English, 1586.

APPENDIX VIII.

INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES.

A LIST OF SOME OF THE PRINCIPAL INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, IMPROVEMENTS, ETC., INTENDED TO ILLUSTRATE THE PROGRESS OF THE ENGLISH NATION.*

The British and Roman Periods.—426.—Before the Roman invasions the staple exports of the inhabitants of Britain appear to have been lead and tin, which they cast into ingots and blocks, and exchanged with Phœnician merchants or traders from Narbonne and Marseilles for brass, salt, and earthenware. Skins, also, together with slaves and hunting dogs (principally bulldogs and mastiffs), formed a considerable object of barter.

Under the Romans the commerce of the country was greatly extended, and important progress was made in agriculture and manufactures. Besides lead and tin, corn, cheese, pearls, oysters, and chalk were largely exported. Jet, or Kimmeridge coal, was eagerly sought for, to be converted into personal ornaments. There were numerous manufactures of pottery and glass-ware, and the art of working in bronze was carried to great perfection. The principal imports appear to have been chains, bridles, brass, articles in amber, and jewellery.

The Anglo-Saxon Period.—449-1066.—During the Anglo-Saxon rule wool was the chief article of export, and returned to the country in a manufactured state. Horses also seem to have been exported.

The chief articles of import were furs, skins, silk, gems, silver, gold, wine, oil, glass, &c. Of the precious metals articles of jewellery were manufactured with great skill by the Saxons.

The most notable advances of this period belong to the reign of Alfred. By his orders manufactures were introduced and encouraged, the laws were revised, cities, castles, and churches were rebuilt, the roads were repaired, schools were opened at Oxford and

* As these inventions, &c., are to be found in the General Index of the Book, it has not been considered necessary to employ any distinctions of type.

elsewhere, a militia was organised, and a fleet equipped. To Alfred, also, is ascribed the device of measuring time by candles, and of contriving lanterns of horn to protect them.

The Norman Period.—1066–1154.—Under Stephen, sugar, then largely imported into Europe, is said to have been brought into England.

Westminster Hall, designed by William Rufus as a banqueting house, was begun in 1097 and completed in 1099. It was subsequently used for the sessions of the *Curia Regis*, or King's Court. (See p. 77.) The first stone bridge was erected across the river Lee at Bow, by Matilda, queen of Henry I., in the beginning of that monarch's reign; and, in 1125, the first park—that of Woodstock—was laid out by him.

The Plantagenet Period.—1154–1399.—The encouragement of textile manufactures in wool and flax, and the growth of our coal trade, constitute the most important features of the Plantagenet era. In 1253 a number of Flemish settlers, protected by Henry III., began to weave linen in this country; and in 1331 John Kempe and certain cloth-workers from the Netherlands, at the invitation of Edward III., introduced the weaving of wool. Long before this time woollen fabrics had been made in England; but the process of manufacture was imperfectly known, and only small quantities were produced. About 1340 a species of blanket is said to have been made, but the Thomas Blanket, from whom the article derives its name, belongs to the eighteenth century.

In 1234 or 1239 a licence to dig for coal was granted by Henry III. to the inhabitants of Newcastle. A Newcastle coal trade begins to be heard of in the succeeding reign; but coal, as fuel, gained at first so little popularity that in 1306 it was petitioned against as a public nuisance. By the conclusion of the century, however, its use in London had become nearly general.

Glass windows, already common in France and Italy, were first used in private houses under Henry II. In the reign of Richard I. coats of arms came into fashion, being borrowed by that monarch from his colleagues of the Crusades, who used them to distinguish nobles in battle. To the reign of Richard belongs, also, the appointment of the first Lord Mayor of London, Henry Fitz Alwyn (1189); as also standards of weights and measures (1197). Under John, by an ordinance of Pope Innocent III., marriages were first solemnised in churches, and the publication of banns appears to

ve commenced about the same date. Chimneys were first used in 1100; and roofing tiles about 1246, when they took the place of thatch. The first gold coin was struck in 1257; the first striking clock was erected at Canterbury Cathedral in 1292; and in 1388 the saddles were introduced by Anne of Bohemia, queen of Richard II.

To the Plantagenet period also, although not to England, belong the invention and improvement of the mariner's compass, ascribed to the Venetian traveller Marco Polo (1260); the invention of spectacles (1285); the manufacture of paper from rags (about 1300); the invention of gunpowder, by Schwartz (about 1320); and of playing cards (1391), which are said to have been devised to divert the melancholy of Charles IV. of France. Roger Bacon (1214-92), a learned philosopher and Franciscan of Henry III.'s reign, who wrote a work called the 'Opus Majus,' is said to have foreshadowed the invention of gunpowder in a composition of which he has left a description. He also described telescopes and microscopes, but their actual construction belongs to a later date.

The building of Old London Bridge, by Peter of Colechurch, was commenced in 1176, and completed in 1209; the pile of buildings called Westminster Abbey was chiefly erected during this period; and, in 1356, Windsor Castle, which dates from William the Conqueror, was rebuilt for Edward III. by William of Wykeham.

The Yorkist and Lancastrian Period.—1399-1485.—The chief event of this era is the introduction into this country of the art of printing. In 1438 Lawrence John Koster of Haarlem had devised the printing of books from wooden blocks. For Koster's blocks, John Guttenburg substituted cut metal types in 1444. He was followed by Peter Scheffer, who first cast movable metal types; and in 1471 this method was introduced into England by William Caxton, a London mercer, who set up a press in the Almonry near Westminster Abbey. His earliest known issues were 'The Game and Playe of Chesse,' and 'The Boke of Tulle of Old Age,' translation of Cicero 'De Senectute.'

In 1415 the streets of London were first lighted by lanterns. In 1481 a horse postal service was established by Edward IV., during the war with Scotland; and this system was further improved by Richard III.

On the Continent, watches were invented at Nuremberg in 1477. Engraving on steel and wood was discovered, oil painting practised, and hand firearms were first used. The Burgundian soldiery, who

fought under Edward IV. at Barnet, in 1471, are said to have been armed with hand-guns, which gave them an advantage over the English bowmen, who opposed them, comparable only with that obtained by the Prussian needle-gun over the Austrian weapon in the 'Seven Weeks' War' of 1866.

The Tudor Period.—1485–1603.—To the Tudor period belongs a number of improvements and miscellaneous inventions for which a chronological arrangement is best suited. Under Henry VII., sea-charts were first brought into England, in 1489, by Bartholomew Columbus, to illustrate his brother's theories of a western continent. Under Henry VIII., currants, the finer sorts of apples, cherries, and apricots, with carrots and other edible roots, were first cultivated in this country. Many of the Kentish apple orchards are said to have been planted by Richard Harris, the king's fruiterer. Hops were also introduced from the Netherlands about 1524, and used for brewing purposes. Under an Act of 27 Henry VIII., parochial registers of births, deaths, and marriages were established by Cromwell, Lord Essex. In 1540 pins and pin-money were brought into fashion by Catherine Howard; and in 1543 the first work on book-keeping was published, by a printer named Gough. Sovereigns and half-sovereigns, of the modern value, were coined by Henry VIII.; and crowns, half-crowns, sixpenny and threepenny pieces were first struck in the reign of Edward VI. In Edward's reign also grapes, hitherto imported from Flanders, were first cultivated in this country (1552).

In the reign of Mary coaches were seen in England (1553); starch was first used in the same year; and, according to Stow, the manufacture of glass was established in Crutched Friars and at the Savoy (1557). In Elizabeth's reign a German, named Growse, introduced the art of needle-making (1566). It had, however, been known, and again lost, in Mary's days. In 1577 pocket watches were brought from Germany. In 1589 the Rev. Mr. Lee, of Cambridge, invented the stocking-frame. Fire-ships were first used by Lord Howard of Effingham at the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588. The first English paper-mills were erected in 1590, by a German named Spielman, at Dartford in Kent. The introduction of potatoes and tobacco into England also belongs to Elizabeth's reign, but opinions differ as to the introducers. In this reign, too, the *armoury of the toilet* received the addition of fans, muffs, masks, and *false hair* from Italy and France.

Among continental inventions may be noted those of bomb-shells

at Venloo in the Low Countries (1495), spinning-wheels at Brunswick (about 1530), and telescopes in Holland (1590-1609).

King's College Chapel, Cambridge, a beautiful example of the Tudor style of architecture, was erected by Henry VII., as was also the chapel in Westminster Abbey which bears his name. Many free grammar schools were built and endowed by Edward VI. Under Elizabeth the Royal Exchange was built (1566-71); schools were founded at Westminster (1560) and Rugby (1567); and the Bodleian Library was instituted (1598). The circumnavigation of the globe by Sir Francis Drake (1577), the establishment of the East India Company (1600), and the rise and growth of the great manufacturing towns of Manchester, Birmingham, and Sheffield also belong to this period.

The Stuart Period.—1603-1688.—To the reign of the first of the Stuarts belongs the discovery of the circulation of the blood by William Harvey (1618). In 1608 the art of dyeing was brought from Holland. Silk was first manufactured in 1604, and in 1620 broad silk was first woven. In 1621 the power of licensing public-houses was granted to Sir Charles Mompesson and Sir Francis Mitchel. A year later appeared the 'London Weekly Courant,' which claims to be the first newspaper, though that honour really belongs to the 'Public Intelligencer,' established by Sir Roger L'Estrange in the reign of Charles II. (1663.)

In the reign of Charles I. hackney coaches were first set up in London by a Captain Bailey (1625); the manufacture of linen was established in Ireland, and greatly encouraged by Strafford when Lord Deputy (1633-40); the postal service was improved (1631) and coffee was introduced into England (1641).

During the Commonwealth and the Protectorates a coffee-house was opened, in George Yard, Lombard Street, by the servant of an English Turkey merchant, named Edwards (1652); the first public bank was established (1656-8); and pocket-watches were first made in England by Dr. Robert Hooke about 1658.

Under Charles II. turnpikes were first erected in 1663, and in the same year the first fire-engines were constructed and guineas were first struck. Tea, which had been brought to Europe by the Dutch in 1610, came into use in England about 1660. The Post Office, as at present constituted, was founded, and the Royal Society organised in 1660. In 1661 a standing army was established. Salt mines were discovered in Staffordshire in 1670. Plate glass was first made at Lambeth by Venetian artists under the patronage of the Duke of

Buckingham in 1673, and the weaver's or Dutch loom was introduced from Holland about 1676.

In the reign of William III. a steam engine for raising water was built by Captain Savery (1698).

The still-existing Queen Anne's Bounty for the benefit of poor clergy was a noble charity which marks the reign of this sovereign. To establish it (1704) the Queen gave up the first fruits and the tenths—i.e., the first year's incomes of newly appointed incumbents, and tenths for each subsequent year of tenure—which had hitherto been paid to the crown. A daily newspaper—the 'Daily Courant'—first appeared in 1709; the first fire insurance office was established in 1710; and in 1713 Newcomen and Savery constructed an atmospheric engine.

Among the public works and buildings of the Stuart period are—The New River, a canal planned by Sir Hugh Myddelton to supply London with water, commenced in 1609, and completed in 1613; the Banqueting House at Whitehall, built by Inigo Jones in 1619; the Observatory at Greenwich, in 1675; St. Paul's Cathedral, begun in 1675 and completed in 1710; and Chelsea Hospital, completed in 1690. In 1694 the royal residence at Greenwich was converted into an hospital by William and Mary.

Abroad, barometers were invented by the Florentine Torricelli about 1643, and the invention of thermometers is also assigned to this period. Pendulums were adapted to clocks by Galileo the younger in 1641. Otto von Guericke, of Magdeburg, invented air-pumps about 1650; Guter, of Nuremberg, air-guns, about 1656; and bayonets were invented about 1670 at Bayonne, in France.

The Hanoverian Period.—1714.—The chronicle of progress is rich during this the latest period of our history. The introduction of inoculation from smallpox by Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, in the reign of George I., may worthily head the list. It was practised from 1722 till 1799, when Dr. Jenner discovered the virtue of vaccine.

Under George II. Franklin demonstrated the identity of electricity and lightning. Much progress was made in the science of navigation by the invention of Hadley's quadrant in 1731, and of Harrison's chronometers, which came into use about 1764. The first patent (Paul's) for spinning by rollers was issued in 1738. In 1731 English instead of Latin was used in the courts of law. Fahrenheit's thermometer (invented 1730) was also adopted in England about this time; and Pope Gregory XIII.'s reform in the calendar was introduced in 1752, September 3 in that year becoming September 14.

To the reign of George III. we owe Watt's improvements in the steam engine (1765-81), and the application of steam power to navigation. An Act of Parliament for a railway (by horses) between Wandsworth and Croydon was passed in 1801. In 1802 the first steamboat—the 'Comet'—was tried upon the river Clyde, and in 1815 a steamer began to ply on the Thames. In the same year a safety lamp for the prevention of accidents in coal mines was invented by Sir Humphrey Davy. Vast improvements were made in textile manufacture by the invention of the spinning-jenny by Hargreaves (1767), the spinning or water frame by Arkwright (1769), the mule-jenny by Crompton (1774-9), and the power-loom by the Rev. Dr. Edmund Cartwright (1785). The first number of 'The Times' was issued on January 1, 1788, the paper having existed since 1785 under the title of the 'Daily Universal Register.' It was printed by steam in 1814. Coal-gas was first applied for lighting purposes in 1792 in Cornwall, and became generally used in London about 1814. In this reign, also, india-rubber was discovered, umbrellas introduced, mail coaches first started (1784), and the first savings bank organised (1810). Sunday schools were established by Robert Raikes, a printer of Gloucester (1781). The Union Jack flag was completed in 1801 by the amalgamation of the banner of St. Patrick with the already united banners of England (St. George's) and of Scotland (St. Andrew's). About 1783 air-balloons were invented by the French; and in 1791 the galvanic battery and the voltaic pile were invented by the Italians.

Under George IV. the first locomotive steam engine, to travel at the rate of six miles an hour, was constructed by George Stephenson (1824); and in 1829 omnibuses were introduced into London. To this reign, also, we owe Peel's remodelled police force.

The chief invention of the reign of Victoria is that of the electric telegraph by Wheatstone and Cooke, in 1837. A submarine telegraph between Dover and Calais was opened in 1851; and, in 1866, after several failures, a transatlantic telegraph cable was successfully laid by means of the monster steam ship 'Great Eastern.' Photography has been a growing science since the experiments of Wedgwood and Davy in 1802. A uniform penny postage for letters not weighing above half an ounce began on January 10, 1840; and a book-post, at the rate of one penny for every four ounces, was established in 1855.* Great advances have also been made towards the perfecting of fire-

* A book-post is now (1870) established at the rate of one halfpenny for every two ounces; as well as a halfpenny 'post-card' for open communications.

arms and artillery, and in the protection of ships and forts by armour plating.

The International Exhibitions of 1851 and 1862 greatly conduced to the progress of invention in every branch; the building in which the first was held, constructed chiefly of glass and iron after a design by Sir Joseph Paxton, may be regarded as a successful experiment.

We may head the list of public buildings belonging to the Hanoverian period with Guy's Hospital, founded by a bookseller of that name in the reign of George I. Under George II. Old Westminster Bridge was opened in 1750, the Foundling Hospital in 1756, and the British Museum in 1759; the Eddystone Lighthouse was completed in 1759, and Old Blackfriars Bridge in 1770. In the reign of George III. the London Docks (1805), Waterloo Bridge (1817), and Southwark Bridge (1819) were completed. The Caledonian Canal was opened in 1822, and a fine suspension bridge was erected over the Menai Straits (1825).

During the reigns of George IV. and William IV. the National Gallery was founded (1824), New London Bridge built (1825), and the Zoological Gardens opened (1827).

The Thames Tunnel, designed by Mr. I. K. Brunel, was begun in 1825, though not completed till 1853. A tubular bridge over the Menai Straits was erected in 1850, and new bridges at Westminster (1860) and Blackfriars (1870) have taken the place of the old ones. The Thames Embankment, recommended by Sir Christopher Wren as far back as 1666, commenced in 1864, and completed in 1870, may be regarded as one of the chief metropolitan improvements of the Victorian era, and the Metropolitan Railway, commenced in 1860 and now being extended underground in a circle round London, as one of the most extraordinary.

APPENDIX IX.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

A LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL SOVEREIGNS CONTEMPORARY WITH ENGLISH MONARCHS WHO HAVE EXERCISED AN INFLUENCE OVER ENGLISH HISTORY.

WILLIAM I.

Malcolm III. of Scotland, who married Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, through whom the present line claims its right by descent from Alfred. (*See* p. 13, s. 39.)

HENRY I.

Henry V. of Germany, who married Maud, daughter of Henry I., thence commonly known as the Empress Maud.

STEPHEN.

David I. of Scotland, uncle of the Empress Maud, defeated by Stephen at the battle of the Standard (1138).

HENRY II.

Louis VII. of France, whose divorced wife, Eleanor of Guienne, was married by Henry II. (1151).

William the Lion, of Scotland, who was taken prisoner at the battle of Alnwick (1175), and compelled to do homage to Henry II.

RICHARD I.

Philip II. of France, who engaged with Richard I. in the Crusades, but returned after the taking of Acre (1192).

Henry VI. of Germany, to whom Richard was delivered by Leopold, Duke of Austria, and by whom he was confined in a prison in the Tyrol (1192).

JOHN.

Philip II. of France, who took from John, Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Touraine (1204), and was authorised to dethrone him by Pope Innocent III.

Pope Innocent III., who placed the kingdom under an interdict (1208-13), in consequence of John's refusal to receive Stephen Langton, the Papal nominee to the see of Canterbury.

HENRY III.

Louis VIII. of France, son of Philip II., who invaded England at the death of John, but was defeated at Lincoln by the Earl of Pembroke, and off Kent by Hubert de Burgh (1217).

EDWARD I.

John Balliol, of Scotland, who was defeated and deposed by Edward I. (1296).

EDWARD II.

Robert I. of Scotland, by whom Edward II. was defeated at Bannockburn (1314).

EDWARD III.

Philip VI. of France, defeated at the battle of Cressy (1346).

David II. of Scotland, who was taken prisoner at the battle of Neville's Cross (1346).

John II. of France, taken prisoner at the battle of Poitiers (1356).

Pedro the Cruel, King of Castile, whom the Black Prince assisted against Du Guesclin (1367).

HENRY V.

Charles VI. of France, defeated by Henry V. at Agincourt (1415).

HENRY VI.

Charles VII. of France, who, with the help of the Maid of Orleans, ultimately drove the English from that country.

HENRY VII.

Ferdinand II. of Arragon, whose daughter (Catherine) married Henry's eldest son, Arthur (1501), and, after his death, became the first wife of Henry VIII. (1509).

James IV. of Scotland, who married Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. (1502), and thus originated the claim of the Stuarts to the English throne.

HENRY VIII.

Ferdinand II. of Arragon, Henry's ally in the war with Louis XII.

Maximilian I. of Germany, Henry's ally in the war with Louis XII.

James IV. of Scotland, defeated and slain at Flodden Field (1513).

Louis XII. of France, defeated by Henry VIII. and Maximilian I. at the battle of Guinegate (1513); married Mary, Henry's sister (1514).

Charles V. of France and Spain, who made an alliance with Henry in 1520, at the death of Maximilian.

Francis I. of France, who had a famous interview with Henry at the Field of the Cloth of Gold in 1520.

Pope Leo X., who gave Henry the title of 'Defender of the Faith' (1521).

Pope Clement VI., who opposed Henry's divorce from Catherine of Arragon (1534).

James V. of Scotland, defeated at Solway Moss (1542).

EDWARD VI.

Mary, Queen of Scots, whose forces, under the Regent Murray, were defeated by the Protector Somerset at Pinkie (1547).

MARY I.

Philip II. of Spain, to whom Mary I. was married (1554).

ELIZABETH.

Mary, Queen of Scots, who was executed by Elizabeth's order at Fotheringay Castle (1587).

Philip II. of Spain, whose 'Invincible Armada' was defeated by Elizabeth (1588).

James VI. of Scotland, who succeeded, at Elizabeth's decease, to the English throne (1603).

CHARLES II.

Louis XIV. of France, contemporary of the entire House of Stuart, James I. excepted.

WILLIAM III. AND MARY II.

Louis XIV., with whom William went to war on account of his advocacy of the Catholic Stuart line (1690).

ANNE.

Louis XIV., defeated in various battles by Marlborough, during the War of the Spanish Succession (1702-13).

Charles VI. of Germany, whose Pragmatic Sanction of 1713 produced the War of the Austrian Succession under George II.

GEORGE I.

Philip V. of Spain, who caused the Triple and Quadruple Alliances (1717, 1718).

GEORGE II.

Maria Theresa of Austria, whose accession to the Austrian throne gave rise to the War of the Austrian Succession, in which England and Holland espoused her cause against the Elector of Bavaria and Frederick II. of Prussia, who were supported by France and Spain (1740-1748).

Louis XV., whose forces under Marshal Saxe defeated George II. at the battle of Fontenoy (1745).

Charles VII. of Germany, Elector of Bavaria, opposed to England in the War of the Austrian Succession.

Frederick II. of Prussia, opposed to us in the War of the Austrian Succession, but our ally in the Seven Years' War (1756-63).

GEORGE III.

Louis XVI. of France.

Napoleon I., Emperor of France.

Louis XVIII. of France, restored after Napoleon's downfall.

Ferdinand VII. of Spain, in whose cause this country undertook the Peninsular War (1808-14).

VICTORIA.

Napoleon III., Emperor of France, who, together with **Victor Emmanuel of Italy** and **Abdul Medjid, Sultan of Turkey**, engaged with England in the war of the Crimea (1854-56) against **Nicholas I. of Russia** and **Alexander II.** his son.

APPENDIX X.

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

A LIST OF SOME OF THE PRINCIPAL ENGLISH AUTHORS FROM CHAUCER
TO THE PRESENT DAY, WITH THE TITLES OF SOME OF THEIR MOST
IMPORTANT WORKS.*

EDWARD III. AND RICHARD II.

Geoffrey Chaucer, 1328-1400.—Poet. ‘Troilus and Cressida,’
‘The Flower and the Leaf,’ ‘Canterbury Tales.’

John Gower, 1320-1402.—Poet. ‘Vox Clamantis’ (chronicle
of the insurrection of the Commons under Richard II.), ‘Confessio
Amantis’ (a metrical system of morality).

Jean Froissart, 1337-1410.—Historian. ‘Chronicles’ (of
affairs in England, France, Flanders, and Scotland, during the
reigns of Edward III. and Richard II.).

HENRY VII.

William Dunbar, 1465-1530.—Poet. ‘The Thistle and the
Rose’ (James IV. of Scotland and Margaret of England).

HENRY VIII.

Sir Thomas Wyatt, 1503-1542.—Poet. Sonnets and amatory
poems.

Howard, Earl of Surrey, 1515-1547.—Poet. Sonnets and
amatory poems.

ELIZABETH.

Edmund Spenser, 1552-1599.—Poet. ‘Shepherd’s Calendar,’
‘Faerie Queene.’

Sir Philip Sidney, 1554-1586.—Poet and romancer. ‘Arca-
dia,’ ‘Defence of Poesy,’ sonnets.

* As far as possible, these authors have been arranged under the reigns in
which their most important works were produced. In most cases the works
named are given in the order of their publication.

William Shakspeare, 1564-1616. — Poet and dramatist. 'Romeo and Juliet,' 'Hamlet,' 'Othello,' 'Macbeth,' 'King Lear.'

Christopher Marlowe, 1564-1593.—Dramatist. 'Hero and Leander,' 'The Jew of Malta,' 'Dr. Faustus.'

Francis Beaumont, 1586-1616; **John Fletcher**, 1576-1625. —Dramatists (who wrote in concert). 'The Faithful Shepherdess,' 'The Maid's Tragedy,' 'The Two Noble Kinsmen.'

Ben Jonson, 1574-1637.—Dramatist. 'Every Man in his Humour,' 'Volpone,' 'The Alchemist,' 'The Silent Woman.'

John Webster, *Fl.* 17th Century.—Dramatist. 'Duchess of Malfy,' 'The White Devil, or Vittoria Corambona.'

Roger Ascham, 1515-1568.—Prose writer. 'Toxophilus' (a work on archery), 'The Schole-master.'

Richard Hooker, 1553-1600.—Theologian. 'Ecclesiastical Polity.'

John Stow, 1525-1605.—Antiquary. 'Summary of Chronicles,' 'Survey of London.'

JAMES I.

John Donne, 1573-1631.—Poet. 'Satires,' 'Epigrams,' 'Paradoxes,' 'Problems.'

Drummond of Hawthornden, 1585-1649.—Poet. Sonnets and other poems.

Philip Massinger, 1584-1640.—Dramatist. 'The Virgin Martyr,' 'A New Way to Pay Old Debts,' 'The City Madam.'

Robert Burton, 1576-1640.—Prose writer. 'The Anatomy of Melancholy.'

Francis Lord Bacon, 1561-1626.—Philosopher and miscellaneous writer. 'Novum Organum,' 'De Augmentis Scientiarum,' 'Essays.'

John Selden, 1584-1654.—Lawyer and antiquary. 'Titles of Honour,' 'Table Talk.'

CHARLES I.

Francis Quarles, 1592-1644.—Poet. 'Emblems.'

Robert Herrick, 1591-1674.—Poet. 'Hesperides.'

Edmund Waller, 1605-1687.—Poet. Poems.

THE COMMONWEALTH AND PROTECTORATES.

Abraham Cowley, 1618-1667.—Poet and prose writer. *Poems and essays.*

John Milton, 1608–1674.—Poet and miscellaneous prose writer. ‘Areopagitica,’ ‘Paradise Lost,’ ‘Comus,’ ‘Samson Agonistes.’

Sir Thomas Browne, 1605–1682.—Prose writer. ‘Vulgar Errors,’ ‘Religio Medici.’

Isaac Walton, 1593–1683.—Prose writer. ‘The Compleat Angler,’ ‘Lives’ (Hooker, Donne, &c.).

Jeremy Taylor, 1613–1667.—Theologian. ‘Holy Living and Dying.’

CHARLES II.

Samuel Butler, 1612–1680.—Poet. ‘Hudibras.’

William Wycherley, 1640–1715.—Dramatist. ‘Love in a Wood,’ ‘Plain Dealer,’ ‘Country Wife.’

Samuel Pepys, 1632–1703.—Prose writer. Diary (1659–1669).

John Bunyan, 1628–1688.—Theologian. ‘The Pilgrim’s Progress,’ ‘The Holy War.’

Richard Baxter, 1615–1691.—Theologian. ‘The Saint’s Rest,’ ‘Call to the Unconverted.’

JAMES II. AND WILLIAM AND MARY.

John Dryden, 1631–1701.—Poet and dramatist. ‘Absalom and Achitophel’ (Duke of Monmouth and Earl of Shaftesbury), ‘The Hind and the Panther’ (a poem in vindication of Romish tenets), translation of the ‘Æneid,’ plays.

Sir John Vanbrugh, 1666–1726.—Dramatist. ‘The Relapse,’ ‘The Provoked Wife.’

William Congreve, 1670–1729.—Dramatist. ‘Double Dealer,’ ‘Love for Love,’ ‘Mourning Bride.’

John Evelyn, 1620–1706.—Prose writer. ‘Sylva’ (Forest Trees), ‘Diary’ (1641–1706).

John Locke, 1632–1704.—Metaphysician. ‘Essay on the Conduct of the Human Understanding.’

ANNE.

Matthew Prior, 1664–1721.—Poet. ‘The City Mouse and Country Mouse’ (a reply to Dryden’s ‘Hind and Panther’).

George Farquhar, 1678–1707.—Dramatist. ‘The Recruiting Officer,’ ‘The Beaux’ Stratagem.’

Nicholas Rowe, 1673–1718.—Dramatist. ‘The Fair Penitent.’

Joseph Addison, 1672–1719.—Dramatist and essayist. ‘Tatler’ and ‘Spectator,’ ‘Cato.’

Sir Richard Steele, 1671-1729.—Dramatist and essayist. 'The Tender Husband,' 'The Funeral,' 'Tatler,' 'Spectator,' and 'Guardian.'

Gilbert Burnet, 1643-1715.—Historian. 'History of My Own Time.'

The Earl of Shaftesbury (Anthony Ashley Cooper), 1671-1713.—Metaphysician. 'Characteristics.'

Bishop Berkeley, 1684-1753.—Metaphysician. 'Theory of Vision,' 'Principles of Human Knowledge.'

Sir Isaac Newton, 1642-1727.—Metaphysician and mathematician. 'Principia.'

Richard Bentley, 1662-1742.—Critic. 'Dissertation on the Epistles of Phalaris' (Boyle and Bentley controversy), editions of Horace and Terence.

GEORGE I.

Thomas Parnell, 1679-1717.—Poet. 'The Hermit.'

John Gay, 1688-1732.—Poet. 'Beggar's Opera,' 'Fables.'

Alexander Pope, 1688-1744.—Poet. 'Rape of the Lock,' 'Translation of the Iliad and Odyssey,' 'Dunciad,' 'Essay on Man.'

Jonathan Swift, 1667-1745.—Poet and miscellaneous writer. 'Tale of a Tub,' 'Drapier's Letters' (on Wood's coinage), 'Gulliver's Travels.'

Daniel de Foe, 1663-1731.—Novelist and miscellaneous prose writer. 'Robinson Crusoe,' 'Journal of the Plague Year,' 'Memoirs of a Cavalier.'

GEORGE II.

James Thomson, 1700-1748.—Poet. 'The Seasons,' 'Rule Britannia,' 'The Castle of Indolence.'

William Collins, 1720-1756.—Poet. Odes and Oriental Eclogues.

Allan Ramsay, 1685-1758.—Poet. 'The Gentle Shepherd.'

William Shenstone, 1714-1763.—Poet. 'The Schoolmistress.'

Edward Young, 1684-1765.—Poet. 'Night Thoughts.'

Thomas Gray, 1716-1771.—Poet. 'Elegy in a Country Churchyard,' 'The Bard.'

Richard Savage, 1697-1743.—Dramatist. 'Sir Thomas Overbury,' 'The Wanderer.'

Samuel Johnson, 1709-1784.—Lexicographer and miscellaneous writer. 'London,' 'Rambler,' Dictionary, 'Rasselas.'

Samuel Richardson, 1689-1761.—Novelist. 'Pamela,' 'Clarissa Harlowe,' 'Sir Charles Grandison.'

Laurence Sterne,* 1713-1768.—Novelist. 'Tristram Shandy,' 'A Sentimental Journey through France and Italy.'

Henry Fielding, 1707-1754.—Novelist and miscellaneous writer. 'Joseph Andrews,' 'Tom Jones,' 'Amelia.'

Tobias Smollett, 1721-1771.—Novelist, historian, and miscellaneous writer. 'Roderick Random,' 'Peregrine Pickle,' 'History of England,' 'The Expedition of Humphrey Clinker.'

Oliver Goldsmith,* 1728-1774.—Novelist, poet, dramatist, and miscellaneous writer. 'Citizen of the World,' 'Vicar of Wakefield,' 'Deserted Village,' 'She Stoops to Conquer.'

Joseph Butler, 1692-1752.—Theologian. 'Analogy of Religion,' 'Sermons.'

David Hume, 1711-1776.—Historian. 'Essay Moral and Political,' 'History of England.'

GEORGE III.

Thomas Chatterton, 1752-1770.—Poet. Poems.

William Falconer, 1730-1770.—Poet. 'The Shipwreck.'

Robert Burns, 1759-1796.—Poet. 'Tam O'Shanter,' 'Address to the Deil,' 'The Jolly Beggars,' &c.

William Cowper, 1731-1800.—Poet. 'John Gilpin,' 'The Task,' translation of Homer.

William Beattie, 1735-1803.—Poet. 'The Minstrel.'

Henry Kirke White, 1785-1806.—Poet. 'Remains.'

John Keats, 1795-1821.—Poet. 'Endymion,' 'Lamia,' 'The Eve of St. Agnes.'

Percy Bysshe Shelley, 1792-1822.—Poet. 'Queen Mab,' 'Revolt of Islam,' 'The Cenci.'

Lord Byron, 1788-1824.—Poet. 'English Bards and Scotch Reviewers,' 'Childe Harold's Pilgrimage,' 'Don Juan.'

George Crabbe, 1754-1832.—Poet. 'The Village,' 'The Borough,' 'Tales of the Hall.'

James Hogg, 1772-1835.—Poet. 'The Queen's Wake,' 'The Pilgrims of the Sun.'

Thomas Campbell, 1777-1844.—Poet. 'Pleasures of Hope,' 'Gertrude of Wyoming,' 'Ye Mariners of England.'

* Strictly speaking, these two authors belong to the first years of George III.'s reign, in which their chief works were produced. But they are more generally associated with the writers of the preceding period.

William Wordsworth, 1770-1850.—Poet. ‘Lyrical Ballads,’ ‘The Excursion,’ &c.

Samuel Taylor Coleridge, 1772-1834.—Poet and miscellaneous writer. ‘Cristabel,’ ‘The Ancient Mariner,’ ‘The Friend.’

Robert Southey, 1774-1843.—Poet and miscellaneous writer. ‘Joan of Arc,’ ‘Thalaba,’ ‘Life of Nelson,’ ‘The Doctor.’

Thomas Moore, 1779-1852.—Poet and miscellaneous writer. ‘Irish Melodies,’ ‘Lalla Rookh,’ ‘Life of Byron.’

Sir Walter Scott, 1771-1832.—Poet, novelist, and miscellaneous writer. ‘Lay of the Last Minstrel,’ ‘Marmion,’ ‘Waverley Novels.’

Jane Austen, 1785-1817.—Novelist. ‘Emma,’ ‘Sense and Sensibility,’ ‘Pride and Prejudice.’

Horace Walpole, 1717-1797.—Prose writer. ‘Castle of Otranto’ and Correspondence.

Lord Chesterfield, 1694-1773.—Prose writer. ‘Letters to his Son.’

James Boswell, 1740-1795.—Biographer. ‘Life of Johnson.’

Richard Brinsley Sheridan, 1751-1816.—Dramatist. ‘The Rivals,’ ‘School for Scandal,’ ‘The Critic.’

Charles Lamb, 1775-1834.—Essayist and critic. ‘Essays of Elia,’ ‘Rosamond Gray.’

William Paley, 1743-1805.—Theologian. ‘Horæ Paulinæ,’ ‘Evidences of Christianity,’ ‘Natural Theology.’

William Robertson, 1721-1793.—Historian. ‘History of Scotland,’ ‘History of America.’

Edward Gibbon, 1737-1794.—Historian. ‘Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.’

Sir James Mackintosh, 1765-1832.—Historian. ‘History of England.’

Dugald Stewart, 1753-1828.—Metaphysician. ‘Philosophy of the Human Mind,’ ‘Philosophical Essays.’

Adam Smith, 1723-1790.—Political economist. ‘Wealth of Nations,’ ‘Theory of Moral Sentiments.’

Jeremy Bentham, 1747-1832.—Political economist. ‘Defence of Usury,’ ‘Panopticon.’

Sir William Blackstone, 1723-1780.—Legist. ‘Commentaries on the Laws of England.’

GEORGE IV. AND WILLIAM IV.

Thomas Noon Talfourd, 1795-1854.—Dramatist. ‘Ion.’

Sheridan Knowles, 1784-1862.—Dramatist. ‘Virginias,’ ‘The Hunchback.’

Captain Frederick Marryat, 1792-1848.—Novelist. 'Peter Simple,' 'Jacob Faithful,' 'Midshipman Easy.'

VICTORIA.

Thomas Hood, 1798-1845.—Poet. 'Song of the Shirt,' 'Bridge of Sighs,' 'Whims and Oddities.'

Elizabeth Barrett Browning, 1809-1861.—Poet. 'Casa Guidi Windows,' 'Aurora Lee.'

Alfred Tennyson, *b.* 1809.—Poet Laureate. 'Princess,' 'In Memoriam,' 'Idylls of the King' (Arthur).

Robert Browning, *b.* 1812.—Poet. 'Sordello,' 'Christmas Eve and Easter Day,' 'The Ring and the Book.'

William Morris, *b.* 1834.—Poet. 'Defence of Guenevere,' 'Life and Death of Jason,' 'The Earthly Paradise.'

Algernon Charles Swinburne, *b.* 1843.—Poet. 'Atalanta in Calydon,' 'Chastelard,' 'Poems and Ballads.'

Henry Taylor, *b.* 1800.—Dramatist. 'Isaac Comnenus,' 'Philip Van Artevelde.'

Douglas Jerrold, 1803-1857.—Dramatist and miscellaneous writer. 'Black-eyed Susan,' 'Candle Lectures,' 'St. Giles and St. James.'

Charlotte Brontë, 1816-1855.—Novelist. 'Jane Eyre,' 'Shirley,' 'Villette.'

William Makepeace Thackeray, 1811-1863.—Novelist. 'Vanity Fair,' 'Esmond,' 'The Newcomes.'

Elizabeth Gaskell, 1811-1865.—Novelist. ' Sylvia's Lovers,' 'Cousin Phillis,' 'Wives and Daughters' (left unfinished).

Charles Dickens, 1812-1870.—Novelist. 'Pickwick Papers,' 'A Christmas Carol,' 'Martin Chuzzlewit,' 'David Copperfield.'

Anthony Trollope, *b.* 1815.—Novelist. 'Framley Parsonage,' 'The Small House at Allington,' 'The Last Chronicle of Barset.'

George Eliot (*nom de plume*), *b.* 1820.—Novelist and poet. 'Adam Bede,' 'Romola,' 'The Spanish Gypsy.'

Lord Lytton, *b.* 1806.—Novelist, dramatist, and miscellaneous writer. 'Last days of Pompeii,' 'The Caxtons,' 'The Lady of Lyons,' 'Money.'

Augustus W. Hare, 1792-1834; **Julius C. Hare**, 1795-1855.—Theologians. 'Guesses at Truth.'

John Kitto, 1804-1854.—Theologian. 'Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature.'

Henry Hart Milman, 1791-1868.—Theologian. 'History of the Jews,' 'History of Christianity.'

Richard C. Trench, *b.* 1807.—Theologian and etymologist. 'Notes on the Parables,' 'Notes on the Miracles,' 'On the Study of Words.'

Henry Hallam, 1778–1859.—Historian. 'Constitutional History of England,' 'History of English Literature.'

Lord Macaulay, 1800–1859.—Historian. 'Lays of Ancient Rome,' 'History of England,' 'Essays.'

Sir Archibald Alison, 1792–1867.—Historian. 'History of Europe.'

George Grote, *b.* 1794.—Historian. 'History of Greece, Plato and other Companions of Socrates.'

Alexander Kinglake, *b.* 1802.—Historian. 'History of the Invasion of the Crimea.'

James Anthony Froude, *b.* 1818.—Historian. 'History of England.'

Henry Thomas Buckle, 1822–1862.—Historian and philosophic writer. 'History of Civilization.'

Thomas Carlyle, *b.* 1795.—Historian and philosophic writer. 'Sartor Resartus,' 'French Revolution,' 'Hero Worship.'

John Forster, *b.* 1812.—Biographer and critic. 'Life of Goldsmith,' 'Life of W. S. Landor.'

George Henry Lewes, *b.* 1817.—Biographer and critic. 'History of Philosophy,' 'Life of Goethe.'

Anna Jameson, 1797–1860.—Writer on art. 'Legends of the Monastic Orders,' 'Legends of the Madonna.'

John Ruskin, *b.* 1819.—Writer on art. 'Modern Painters,' 'Seven Lamps of Architecture,' 'Stones of Venice.'

Richard Whately, 1787–1863.—Scientific writer. 'Elements of Logic,' 'Elements of Rhetoric.'

William Whewell, 1795–1866.—Scientific writer. 'History and Philosophy of the Inductive Sciences.'

Sir David Brewster, 1781–1868.—Scientific writer. 'Treatise on Optics,' 'More Worlds than One.'

Sir William Hamilton, *b.* 1788.—Scientific writer. 'Discussions on Philosophy.'

Sir John Herschell, *b.* 1792.—Scientific writer. Works on astronomy.

Sir Charles Lyell, *b.* 1797.—Scientific writer. Works on geology.

Mary Somerville, *b.* 1790.—Scientific writer. 'Connection of the Physical Sciences,' 'Physical Geography.'

John Stuart Mill, *b.* 1806.—Political economist. 'System of Logic,' 'Essay on Liberty,' 'Principles of Political Economy.'

Thomas de Quincey, 1785–1859.—Political economist and miscellaneous writer. 'Confessions of an English Opium Eater,' 'Logic of Political Economy.'

Harriet Martineau, *b.* 1802.—Political economist and miscellaneous writer. 'History of England during the Thirty Years' Peace,' 'Illustrations of Political Economy.'

APPENDIX XI.

A SCHEDULAR ABSTRACT OF ENGLISH HIST

SHOWING THE CHIEF BATTLES, REMARKABLE EVENTS, A
REMARKABLE CHARACTERS IN EACH REIGN FROM
WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR TO VICTORIA.

REIGNS	BATTLES	REMARKABLE EVENTS	REMARKABLE CHARACTERS
I. THE HOUSE OF NORMANDY. 1066-1154.			
William I. 1066-87	<i>Hastings</i> 1066	Curfew Bell established, 1068. Forest Laws introduced, 1079-85. Domesday Book compiled, 1085. Feudal system introduced, 1086	<i>Lanfranc</i> , bishop of terbury. <i>Atheling</i> , to the 1 <i>Herewar</i> , Saxon
William II. 1087-1100		Crusades preached by Peter the Hermit, 1096	<i>Robert, D</i> <i>Normanc</i> est son Conquer
Henry I. 1100-85	<i>Tinchebrai</i> 1106	Charter of liberties (<i>Institutiones Henrici Primi</i>) granted, 1100. War with <i>Robert</i> , 1106. Drowning of Prince William in the <i>Blanche Nef</i> , 1120	<i>Anselm</i> , bishop of terbury. niece o gar At Henry's
Stephen 1135-54	<i>Standard</i> 1138 <i>Lincoln (1)</i> 1141	Civil war of the Succession, 1138-53. Treaty of Wallingford, 1153	<i>David, K</i> <i>Scotland</i> . called th press Ma

II. THE HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET. 1154-11

Henry II. 1154-89	<i>Alnwick</i> 1175	Constitutions of Clarendon enacted, 1164. A Becket murdered, 1170. Ireland annexed to the English crown, 1171. War with his sons, 1175. Circuits established, 1176. Trial by Jury established	<i>Strongbow</i> , Pembrok conquere land. <i>Becket</i> , bishop o terbury
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REIGNS	BATTLES	REMARKABLE EVENTS	REMARKABLE CHARACTERS
II. The House of Plantagenet—continued.			
Richard I. 1189-99	<i>Ascalon</i> 1192	<i>Crusades of Richard and Philip of France, 1192. Imprisonment of Richard, 1192</i>	<i>Blondel, the minstrel who discovered Richard's prison</i>
John 1199-1216		England under an interdict, 1208-13. MAGNA CHARTA SIGNED, 1215. Charter of the Forests signed, 1217	<i>Arthur, John's nephew. Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury. William, Earl of Pembroke</i>
Henry III. 1216-72	<i>Lincoln (2)</i> 1217 <i>Lewes</i> 1264 <i>Evesham</i> 1265	<i>Barons' War, 1217. Rebellion of Simon de Montfort, 1264. First House of Commons, 1265</i>	<i>Hubert de Burgh. Simon de Montfort, founder of the House of Commons</i>
Edward I. 1272-1307	<i>Wye</i> 1283 <i>Dunbar (1)</i> 1296 <i>Cambuskeneth</i> 1297 <i>Falkirk</i> 1298	House of Commons finally established. Statute of Mortmain, 1279. <i>Welsh War, 1283.</i> Incorporation of Wales with England, 1284. <i>War of Scotch Independence, 1296.</i> Confirmation of the Charters, 1297. Execution of Wallace, 1305	<i>Llewellyn, last Prince of Wales. John Baliol, King of Scotland. Sir William Wallace</i>
Edward II. 1307-27	<i>Bannockburn</i> 1314 <i>Boroughbridge</i> 1322	<i>Scotch War continued, 1314. Rebellion of the barons and murder of the king, 1327</i>	<i>Robert the Bruce. Isabella of France, Edward II.'s wife. Roger Mortimer, Isabella's paramour</i>
Edward III. 1327-77	<i>Halidon Hill</i> 1333 <i>Sluys</i> 1340 <i>Cressy</i> 1346 <i>Nemille's Cross</i> 1346 <i>Siege of Calais</i> 1347 <i>Poitiers</i> 1356	<i>War with the Scotch, 1333. War of the French Succession, 1340-60. Order of the Garter instituted, 1349. Statute of Provisors, 1353. Treaty of Bretigny, 1360</i>	<i>Edward the Black Prince. David Bruce, King of Scotland. John II., King of France. John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster</i>
Richard II. 1377-99	<i>Otterburn (Chevy Chase)</i> 1388	Wat Tyler's insurrection, 1381. Statute of Praemunire, 1392. Hereford's rebellion, 1398	<i>Wat Tyler, slain by Sir William Walworth, Lord Mayor of London. Henry Bolingbroke, afterwards Henry IV.</i>

REIGNS	BATTLES	REMARKABLE EVENTS	REMARKABLE CHARACTERS
III. THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK			
1399-1485.			
Henry IV. 1399-1413	<i>Homildon Hill</i> 1402 <i>Shrewsbury</i> 1403	Persecution of the Lollards, 1401. <i>Civil War</i> , 1403	<i>Owen Glendower</i> <i>Hotspur</i> <i>Harry Pe</i>
Henry V. 1413-22	<i>Harfleur</i> 1415 <i>Agincourt</i> 1415	<i>French War of Conquest</i> , 1415-20. <i>Treaty of Troyes</i> , 1420	<i>Lord Colburnt</i> for ree
Henry VI. 1422-61	<i>Cravant</i> 1423 <i>Verneuil</i> 1424 <i>St. Albans (1)</i> 1455 <i>Blœre Heath</i> 1459 <i>Northampton</i> 1460 <i>Wakefield</i> 1460 <i>Mortimer's Cross</i> 1461 <i>St. Albans (2)</i> 1461	Expulsion of the English from France, 1431. Jack Cade's insurrection, 1450. <i>Wars of the Roses</i> commenced, 1455	<i>Joan of Arc, of Orleans.</i> <i>Duke of Bedford</i> <i>John Talbot of Shrewsbury</i> <i>Owen Tudor</i> married <i>Catherine of Valois</i> and became ancestor of <i>Tudor line</i> <i>Cade. Mar of Anjou, of Henry</i>
Edward IV. 1461-83	<i>Tewkesbury</i> 1461 <i>Hedgeley Moor</i> 1464 <i>Hexham</i> 1464 <i>Barnet</i> 1471 <i>Tewkesbury</i> 1471	<i>Wars of the Roses</i> continued, 1461. <i>Invasion of France</i> , 1475. <i>Treaty of Pecquigny</i> , 1475	<i>Richard, Earl of Warwick</i> , King <i>William Caxton</i> introduced printing into England
Edward V. 1483		Murder of the King with his brother in the Tower, 1483	
Richard III. 1483-5	<i>Bosworth</i> 1485	Benevolences abolished, 1484. Consuls sent abroad, 1485. <i>Wars of the Roses</i> concluded, 1485	<i>The Duke of Burgundy</i> , etc.

REIGNS	BATTLES	REMARKABLE EVENTS	REMARKABLE CHARACTERS
IV. THE HOUSE OF TUDOR. 1485-1603.			
Henry VII. 1485-1509	<i>Stoke</i> 1487 <i>Blackheath</i> 1497	Lambert Simnel's insurrection, 1487. <i>War with France</i> , 1492. Treaty of Estaples, 1492. Perkin Warbeck's insurrection, 1492-99. Statute of Drogheda, 1495	<i>Lambert Simnel.</i> <i>Perkin Warbeck.</i> Margaret, daughter of Henry VII., who married James IV. of Scotland
Henry VIII. 1509-47	<i>Spurs</i> 1513 <i>Flodden Field</i> 1513 <i>Solway Moss</i> 1542	Execution of Empson and Dudley, 1510. <i>War with France and Scotland</i> , 1513. Field of the Cloth of Gold, 1520. <i>Defensor Fidei</i> , 1521. Reformation in England commenced, 1532. Separation of England from Rome, 1534. More executed, 1535. Dissolution of the monasteries, 1536-9. Pilgrimage of Grace, 1536. Statute of VI. Articles, 1539. <i>War renewed with Scotland</i> , 1542	<i>Thomas Wolsey.</i> Lord Chancellor and Archbishop of York. <i>Sir Thomas More.</i> Lord Chancellor. <i>Thomas Cromwell</i>
Edward VI. 1547-53	<i>Pinkie</i> 1547	<i>War with Scotland</i> , 1547. Execution of Admiral Seymour, 1549. Execution of the Protector Somerset, 1552. Reformation completed and Liturgy prepared	<i>Thomas, Lord Seymour.</i> Lord High Admiral. <i>Edward Seymour.</i> Duke of Somerset, Protector of England
Mary I. 1553-8	<i>St. Quentin</i> 1557	Execution of the Duke of Northumberland, 1553. Wyatt's insurrection, 1554. Executions of Lady Jane Grey and Wyatt, 1554. Marian persecutions, 1555. <i>War with France</i> , 1557-8. Calais taken, 1558	<i>John Dudley.</i> Duke of Northumberland. <i>Sir Thomas Wyatt.</i> <i>Lady Jane Grey.</i> <i>Hugh Latimer.</i> Bishop of Worcester. <i>Nicholas Ridley.</i> Bishop of London. <i>Thomas Cranmer.</i> <i>Stephen Gardiner.</i> Bishop of Winchester. <i>Edmund Bonner.</i> Bishop of London.

REIGNS	BATTLES	REMARKABLE EVENTS	REMARKABLE CHARACTERS
IV. The House of Tudor—continued.			
Elizabeth 1558-1603	<i>Langside</i> 1568 <i>Zutphen</i> 1586 <i>Armada defeated</i> 1588 <i>Cadix taken</i> 1596	Acts of Uniformity and Supremacy, 1559. Norfolk's conspiracies, 1569, 1572. Babington's conspiracy, 1586. Mary Queen of Scots executed, 1587. War with Spain, 1586-88. Tyrone's Irish rebellion, 1598. Essex's rebellion, 1601. Poor Law Act, 1601	<i>David Rizzio</i> <i>ry, Lord</i> <i>ley. The L</i> <i>Norfolk.</i> <i>Knox.</i> <i>Earl of</i> <i>well. Sir</i> <i>Sidney.</i> <i>Queen of</i> <i>Dudley, E</i> <i>Leicester.</i> <i>Francis</i> <i>singham.</i> <i>Francis</i> <i>Lord Bu</i> <i>The Ear</i> <i>Essex.</i> <i>Howard</i> <i>singham</i>

V. THE HOUSE OF STUART. 1603-1714.

James I. 1603-25		The Main Plot, 1603. Hampton Court Conference, 1604. Gunpowder Plot, 1605. Commencement of our colonies, 1607	<i>Carr, Duke</i> <i>merset. Si</i> <i>mas Ove</i> <i>Arabella</i> <i>Lord</i> <i>Sir Walte</i> <i>leigh</i>
Charles I. 1625-49	<i>Sieges of</i> <i>Rochelle,</i> 1627-8-8 <i>Edgehill</i> 1642 <i>Chalgrove</i> <i>Field</i> 1643 <i>Newbury (1)</i> 1643 <i>Marston</i> <i>Moor</i> 1644 <i>Newbury (2)</i> 1644 <i>Naseby</i> 1645 <i>Philiphaugh</i> 1645 <i>Preston</i> 1648	Assassination of Buckingham, 1628. PETITION OF RIGHT, 1628. Trial of Hampden (<i>Ship-money</i>) 1637. The Covenant, 1638. <i>With the Scotch</i> , 1638. Treaty of Ripon, 1640. The Long Parliament, 1640-53. Abolition of the Star Chamber and High Commission, 1641. Irish rebellion, 1641. Great Remonstrance, 1641. Arrest of the Five Members, 1642. <i>The Civil War or Great Rebellion</i> , 1642-9. Solemn League and Covenant, 1643. Self-denying Ordinance, 1645	<i>Villiers, Dr</i> <i>Bucking</i> <i>Wentworth</i> <i>of Stro</i> <i>John Han</i> <i>Lord Fal</i> <i>Pym, Ha</i> <i>Hampden</i> <i>les, and</i> <i>the 'Five</i> <i>bers.'</i> <i>Archbisho</i> <i>Canterb</i> <i>Robert</i> <i>reux, Ea</i> <i>Essex.</i> <i>Marquis</i> <i>Montrose.</i> <i>Fairfax.</i> <i>Rupert</i>

REIGNS	BATTLES	REMARKABLE EVENTS	REMARKABLE CHARACTERS
V. The House of Stuart—continued.			
The Commonwealth 1649–53	<i>Dunbar</i> (2) 1650 <i>Worcester</i> 1651	Navigation Act, 1651. <i>First Dutch War</i> , 1652. Treaty of Westminster, 1654	<i>Henry Ireton</i> . <i>Admiral Blake</i> . <i>John Bradshaw</i> . <i>Sir Harry Vane</i> .
Protectorate of Oliver Cromwell 1653–8	<i>Jamaica</i> taken 1655 <i>Dunkirk</i> taken 1658	<i>The Spanish War</i> , 1655–58	<i>General Monk</i> , afterwards Duke of Albemarle
Protectorate of Richard Cromwell 1658–9		Richard Cromwell abdicated, and the Restoration of the Stuarts followed shortly after	
Charles II. 1660–85	<i>The Dutch in the Medway</i> 1667 <i>Bothwell Bridge</i> 1679	Corporation Act, 1661. Act of Uniformity, 1662. Conventicle Acts, 1664, 1670. <i>Second Dutch War</i> , 1664–7. Great Plague, 1665. Five Mile Act, 1665. Great Fire, 1666. Treaty of Breda, 1667. Triple Alliance, 1668. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1668. Secret Treaty of Dover, 1670. <i>Third Dutch War</i> , 1672–4. Test Act, 1673. Treaty of Westminster, 1674. Titus Oates's Plot, 1678. Papists Disabling Bill, 1678. HABEAS CORPUS ACT, 1679. Rye House Plot, 1683	<i>Henrietta of Orleans</i> , daughter of Charles I. <i>Lord Clarendon</i> . <i>Archbishop Sharp</i> . <i>The Earl of Shaftesbury</i> . <i>Lord William Russell</i> . <i>Algernon Sidney</i> . <i>Sir W. Temple</i> . <i>Titus Oates</i> . <i>Lord Danby</i>
James II. 1685–8	<i>Sedgemoor</i> 1685	Monmouth's Rebellion, 1685. Bloody Assize, 1685. Declaration of Indulgence, 1687. Trial of the Seven Bishops, 1688	<i>The Duke of Monmouth</i> . <i>The Earl of Argyll</i> . <i>Judge Jeffreys</i> . <i>Lord Somers</i> . <i>William Penn</i> .
William III. & Mary II. 1689–1702	<i>Killiecrankie</i> 1689 <i>Siege of Londonderry</i> 1689 <i>Boyne</i> 1690 <i>Aughrim</i> 1691 <i>La Hogue</i> 1692 <i>Steinkirk</i> 1692 <i>Lands</i> 1693	Toleration Act, 1689. <i>War of the Revolution</i> , 1689–97. BILL OF RIGHTS, 1689. Massacre of Glencoe, 1692. Triennial Act, 1694. Peace of Ryswick, 1697. Partition Treaties, 1698, 1700. Grand Alliance, 1701. ACT OF SETTLEMENT, 1701. National Debt began in this reign	<i>Viscount Dundee</i> . <i>The Duke of Schomberg</i> . <i>The Marquis of Halifax</i> . <i>John Dalrymple</i> , Master of Stair. <i>Admiral Benbow</i> . <i>Ginkel</i> , <i>Earl of Athlone</i> . <i>Admiral Russell</i>

REIGNS	BATTLES	REMARKABLE EVENTS	REMARKABLE CHARACTER
V. The House of Stuart—continued.			
Anne 1702-14	<i>Blenheim</i> 1704 <i>Ramillies</i> 1706 <i>Oudenarde</i> 1708 <i>Malplaquet</i> 1709	War of the Spanish Succession, 1702-13. UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND, 1707. Treaty of Utrecht, 1713	<i>Sir Cloudeston</i> <i>vel. Sir G. Rooke. The of Godoi</i> <i>The Duke Marlborough</i> <i>Dr. Sachez</i> <i>Harley, Esq.</i> <i>Oxford.</i> <i>daunt, Esq.</i> <i>Peterborough.</i> <i>Henry St.</i> <i>Viscount B.</i> <i>broke.</i>

VI. THE HOUSE OF HANOVER. 1714—

George I. 1714-27	<i>Sheriffmuir</i> 1715 <i>Preston</i> 1715	Mar's Rebellion, 1715. Riot Act, 1715. Septennial Act, 1716. Triple and Quadruple Alliances, 1717, 1718. South Sea Bubble, 1720	<i>The Earl of</i> <i>seventeenth.</i> <i>Kennmare.</i> <i>Earl of</i> <i>Lord Nith</i> <i>Francis</i> <i>bury.</i> <i>Stuart, the</i> <i>Pretender</i>
George II. 1727-60	<i>Portobello</i> 1739 <i>Dettingen</i> 1743 <i>Fontenoy</i> 1745 <i>Preston Pans</i> 1745 <i>Culloden</i> 1746 <i>Arctot taken</i> 1751 <i>Plassey</i> 1757 <i>Minden</i> 1759 <i>Quebec taken</i> 1759	War with Spain, 1739-48. War of the Austrian Succession, 1740-8. Young Pretender's Rebellion, 1745-6. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748. Black Hole of Calcutta, 1757. Seven Years' War, 1756-63. Expedition against Minorca, 1756. Kloster Seven Convention, 1757.	<i>Sir Robert</i> <i>pole. Henry</i> <i>ham. Ad</i> <i>Vernon.</i> <i>ral Byng.</i> <i>miral A</i> <i>General</i> <i>Pulteney,</i> <i>of Bath.</i> <i>Duke of</i> <i>castle. The</i> <i>of Cumber</i> <i>Lord Clive</i> <i>ham Pitt,</i> <i>of Cha</i> <i>Charles Esq.</i> <i>Stuart,</i> <i>'Young</i> <i>tender.'</i>
George III. 1760-1820	<i>Lexington</i> 1775 <i>Bunker's Hill</i> 1775	Treaty of Paris, 1763. Prosecution of Wilkes, 1763. War of American Independence, 1775-83. American Declaration of	<i>Lord Heath</i> <i>Lord Bute.</i> <i>George Gc</i> <i>Lord Mar</i> <i>John</i>

REGIONS	BATTLES	REMARKABLE EVENTS	REMARKABLE CHARACTERS
VI. The House of Hanover—continued.			
GEORGE III. <i>continued</i>	<i>Brooklyn</i> 1776 <i>Brandywine</i> 1777 <i>Surrender at Saratoga</i> 1777 <i>Gibraltar besieged</i> 1779-83 <i>York Town</i> 1781 <i>Howe's Victory</i> 1794 <i>Cape St. Vincent</i> 1797 <i>Camperdown</i> 1797 <i>Nile</i> 1798 <i>Acre besieged</i> 1799 <i>Alexandria</i> 1801 <i>Copenhagen</i> 1801 <i>Assaye</i> 1803 <i>Trafalgar</i> 1805 <i>Maida</i> 1806 <i>Copenhagen bombarded</i> 1807 <i>Vimiera</i> 1808 <i>Corunna</i> 1809 <i>Talavera</i> 1809 <i>Busaco</i> 1810 <i>Barossa</i> 1811 <i>Fuentes d'Onoro</i> 1811 <i>Albuera</i> 1811 <i>Ciudad Rodrigo</i> 1812 <i>Badajoz</i> 1812 <i>Salamanca</i> 1812 <i>Vittoria</i> 1813 <i>Pyrenees</i> 1813 <i>Orthès</i> 1814 <i>Toulouse</i> 1814 <i>Quatre Bras, Waterloo</i> 1815 <i>Algiers bombarded</i> 1816	Independence, 1776. Gordon Riots, 1780. Treaties of Versailles, 1783. Warren Hastings impeached, 1786. <i>First French Revolutionary War</i> , 1793-1803. Mutinies at the Nore and Spithead, 1797. Irish Rebellion, 1798. UNION OF ENGLAND AND IRELAND, 1799. Treaty of Amiens, 1802. <i>Second French Revolutionary War</i> , 1803-15. Projected French invasion of England, 1803. Secret Treaty of Tilsit, 1807. Convention of Cintra, 1808. Walcheren Expedition, 1809. Treaty of Paris, 1814. Treaty of Ghent, 1814. Treaty of Paris, 1815	<i>Edmund Burke.</i> <i>George Washington.</i> <i>Admiral Howe.</i> <i>Admiral Duncan.</i> <i>Lord Cornwallis.</i> <i>Lord Nelson.</i> <i>Charles James Fox.</i> <i>William Pitt the younger.</i> <i>Sir John Moore.</i> <i>R. B. Sheridan.</i> <i>Warren Hastings.</i> <i>Lord Castlereagh.</i> <i>Admiral Jervis.</i> <i>William Wilberforce.</i> <i>Lord Eldon.</i> <i>The Duke of Wellington</i>

REIGNS	BATTLES	REMARKABLE EVENTS	REMARKABLE CHARACTER
VI. The House of Hanover—continued.			
George IV. 1820-30	<i>Navarino</i> 1827	Cato Street Conspiracy, 1820. Queen Caroline's Trial, 1820. <i>Burmese War</i> , 1824-6. <i>War with Turkey</i> , 1827. Catholic Emancipation Bill, 1829. Police force remodelled, 1829	<i>George Canning</i> <i>Lord Wil. Bentinck</i>
William IV. 1830-37		First Reform Bill, 1832. Slavery abolished, 1833. New Poor Law, 1834. Quadruple Alliance, 1834	<i>Daniel O'Connell</i> <i>Admiral Bingley</i>
Victoria 1837-	<i>Beyrout and Acre</i> bombarded 1840 <i>Meeanee</i> 1843 <i>Dubba</i> 1843 <i>Moodkee</i> 1845 <i>Ferozeshah</i> 1845 <i>Aliwal</i> 1846 <i>Sobraon</i> 1846 <i>Kennyree</i> 1848 <i>Ramnuggur</i> 1848 <i>Chilianwallah</i> 1849 <i>Goojerat</i> 1849 <i>Atma</i> 1854 <i>Balaclava</i> 1854 <i>Inkerman</i> 1854 <i>Sebastopol</i> taken 1856 <i>Magdala</i> taken 1868	Canadian Rebellion, 1837. Chartist Movement, 1838. <i>First Chinese War</i> , 1840. Treaty of Constantinople, 1840. <i>Afghan War</i> , 1841-2. <i>War with Scinde</i> , 1843. <i>First Sikh War</i> , 1845-6. Corn Laws repealed, 1846. Sugar Duties repealed, 1846. Navigation Laws repealed, 1849. <i>Second Sikh War</i> , 1848-9. <i>Burmese War</i> , 1851-3. <i>Crimean War</i> , 1854-6. Treaty of Paris, 1856. <i>Second Chinese War</i> , 1856-8. Treaty of Tientsin, 1858. <i>Indian Mutiny</i> , 1856-8. Volunteer movement, 1859. <i>Third Chinese War</i> , 1859-60. Convention of Peking, 1860. Revised Education Code, 1861. Cotton Famine, 1861-5. Fenian Brotherhood, 1863. Jamaica Mutiny, 1865. Second Reform Bill, 1867. <i>Abyssinian War</i> , 1868. Disestablishment of the Irish Church, 1869. Supplemental Treaties, 1870. Landlord and Tenant (Ireland) Act, 1870. Elementary Education Act, 1870	<i>Lord George tinck.</i> <i>Sir R. Peel.</i> <i>Ge. Sir C. J. Na</i> <i>Lord Ra</i> <i>Sir H. 1</i> <i>lock. Lord donald.</i> <i>Aberdeen.</i> <i>miral Sir Napier.</i> <i>C o r n e u Lewis.</i> <i>Clyde. Ri Cobden.</i> <i>Palmer</i> <i>Lord Broug</i> <i>Lord L</i> <i>Lord Cl don.</i> <i>Lord sell.</i> <i>B. Dis W.E. Glad Lord Nap</i> <i>Magdala.</i> <i>John Law</i> <i>John Brig</i>

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